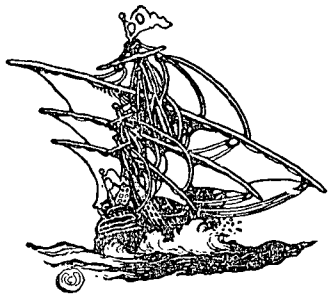
THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

MARCH 15, 1926



The Social Work Shop

A New Department Conducted by John D. Kenderdine

We're Not Through With Coal!

Robert W. Bruère *Norman J. Ware*

Ellis Searles

Housing—How Much for How Much?

Henry Wright

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A Glimpse Ahead

Just Like Steve, *by Eleanor Rowland Wembridge*

ONE of Mrs. Wembridge's pungent comments, in story form, on the deep psychological verities which, rooted in boy and girl nature, bear fruit in such baffling behavior. This is so striking a revelation of the educational processes that breed crime that we wanted to publish it with the crime articles in the last Graphic. But crime is, we fancy, still with us, and the story will be none the less apropos in the April issue.

West Lynn, *by Robert W. Bruère*

Mr. Bruère took his observant self to the town in Massachusetts where a General Electric Company plant offered a striking example of industrial democracy and studied it at close range for The Survey. "The consensus of opinion," he remarks, "was that the plan of representation in West Lynn owed its success to the mutual confidence that had been established between management and employes and that the basis of that confidence was the sharing of knowledge not only of the technique of production control, but also of the financial operations of the plant as a unit—the substitution of candor for secrecy with respect to all matters of common concern." An illuminating record of intelligent and imaginative plant organization, to be published in the April Graphic.

The Independent Farmer, *by Joseph K. Hart*

It is a thrilling experience to see the ideals one has mulled over and struggled for during long years flowering in reality. That was the experience which The Survey's educational editor had when he visited Denmark last summer. Here in the first of three articles on the folk highschools of Denmark and their bearing on the wonderful agricultural civilization of that little peninsula he recounts his stirring experience.

SURVEY ASSOCIATES, INC.
112 East 19 Street, New York
PUBLISHERS
THE SURVEY—Twice-a-month—$5.00 a year
SURVEY GRAPHIC—Monthly—$3.00 a year

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THE SURVEY, *published semi-monthly and copyright 1926 by* SURVEY ASSOCIATES, INC., *112 East 19 Street, New York.*
Price: This issue (March 15, 1926, Vol. LV, No. 12) 25 cents a copy; $5 a year; Canadian postage, 60 cents; foreign postage $1 extra. Changes of address should be mailed us two weeks in advance. When payment is by check a receipt will be sent only upon request.
Entered as second-class matter, March 25, 1909, at the post office, New York, N. Y., under the Act of March 3, 1879. Acceptance for mailing at a special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized on June 26, 1918.

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THE SURVEY

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The Gist of It

THE anthracite strike is over. Yes? What next? Another one? Robert Bruère cuts to the heart of the coal problem with his plea for public responsibility (p. 657).

WILLIAM PATON reports a striking evidence of progress in dealing with opium (p. 659). He is secretary of the National Christian Council for India, Burma and Ceylon, and has recently been in this country.

RAYMOND CLAPP, associate director of the Welfare Federation of Cleveland, gives on p. 661 the first published gleanings of a significant study of the relative support of typical forms of social work in a group of selected cities. The research is being done under the auspices of the American Association for Community Organization.

THE difficulties of the problem child fade beside those encountered in dealing with the problem parent. Mrs. Ratliff sketches a group of cases met in a city high school where a sustained effort is made to adjust individual problems; their implication is clear (p. 669).

THE story of Miss Dunniwell's efforts to fit ideas into a school system—a true story in all its essentials—has its obvious lesson for school administrators and parents too (p. 672).

WHAT kind of house can best be built in the city for low rental? On the answer to that question much housing progress hangs. Henry Wright, who offers some answers (p. 673), has long been a pioneer in the experimental treatment of housing problems. He has been serving as consultant to the New York Commission of Housing and Regional Planning and is now engaged in research for the City Housing Corporation of New York.

THE economic value of health in the modern city (p. 678) was the subject of an address by Ray Lyman Wilbur, president of Stanford University and past president of the American Medical Asssociation, before the Chicago Association of Commerce.

NEARLY everybody is in Florida—or on the way to it. What's to keep them all well when they get there? Not Florida sunshine alone. Rigorous sanitary measures are needed. The state's health officer tells how they are supplied (p. 679).

SHOULD the nurse be trained to see her job in relation to the community? If so, how? Mr. Kulp of Teachers College, Columbia University, attempts an answer in an article (p. 680) which is an abridged version of his address at the annual meeting of the Pennsylvania Nurses Association.

DR. EMERSON'S plea for measuring sticks in the January Midmonthly was directed mainly at caseworkers. Representative leaders in the family social work field comment on it on p. 683.

HOW to burn soft coal was a bothersome question in Eastern households during the strike. But how to mine it without economic pinch on one side or the other, or both, is the perennial problem of operators and miners in the central states. Norman J. Ware, professor of sociology at the University of Louisville, discusses (p. 688) a sequel to the Jacksonville agreement in the Western Kentucky fields. Ellis Searles, editor of the United Mine Workers Journal, replies heatedly.

MR. LILIENTHAL, who analyses the sensible and hopeful Railway Labor Bill (p. 690) is assistant to Donald R. Richberg, general counsel for the Associated Railroad Labor Organizations. Mr. Lilienthal helped draft the bill and writes: "I wouldn't be exactly human if I didn't look favorably on the product of that long hard pull."

SUMMER schooling for girls in industry is still in the experimental stage, and John Troxell of the department of economics at Wisconsin, an instructor in the pioneer 1925 session of the Summer School for Working Women there, raises some questions as to the course of its development (p. 693).

THROUGH oversight the pages of the February issue of The Survey were so numbered as to duplicate those of the February Graphic. Page references will be differentiated in the index to Volume LV.

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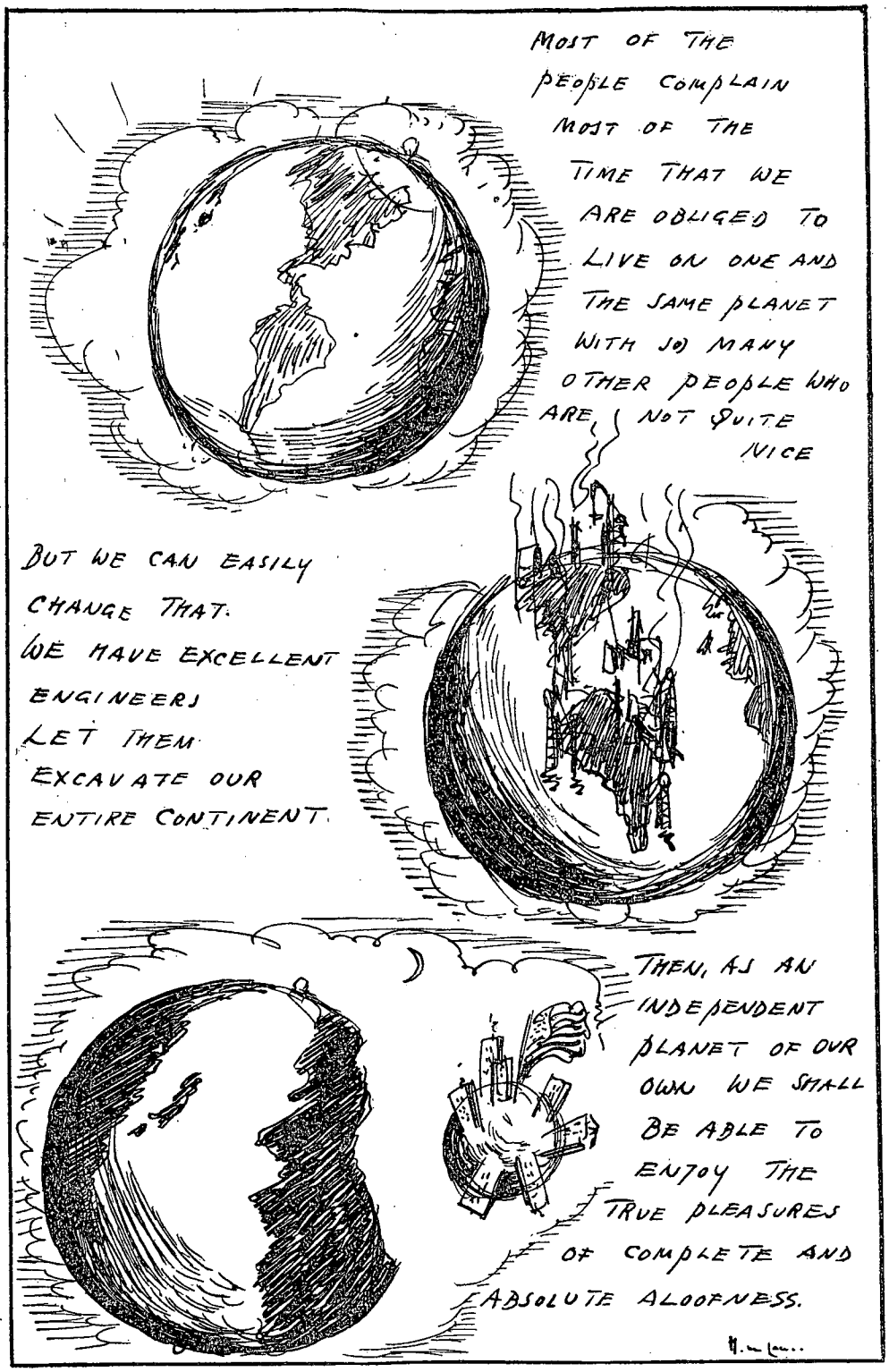
MOST OF THE PEOPLE COMPLAIN MOST OF THE TIME THAT WE ARE OBLIGED TO LIVE ON ONE AND THE SAME PLANET WITH SO MANY OTHER PEOPLE WHO ARE NOT QUITE NICE
BUT WE CAN EASILY CHANGE THAT. WE HAVE EXCELLENT ENGINEERS LET THEM EXCAVATE OUR ENTIRE CONTINENT.
THEN, AS AN INDEPENDENT PLANET OF OUR OWN WE SHALL BE ABLE TO ENJOY THE TRUE PLEASURES OF COMPLETE AND ABSOLUTE ALOOFNESS.

Drawn by Hendrik Willem Van Loon

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THE SURVEY
MIDMONTHLY

March 15
1926

Volume LV
No. 12

Coal: Your Job and Mine

By Robert W. Bruère

THE anthracite deadlock is not so much ended as in abeyance; a year from this month, the Jacksonville agreement will terminate with every present prospect of a nation-wide lockout or strike in the bituminous coal fields. The most remarkable fact about the long anthracite suspension was not so much the extraordinary endurance of the strikers or the indifference of the consuming public, which, thanks to a mild winter, was able somehow to keep warm with substitutes, but the absence of any groups with a sympathetic understanding of the predicament in which the operators and miners found themselves and prepared to rally public opinion to the unsnarling of that predicament.

As the deadlock dragged on, thousands of scattered individuals played ineptly about the fringes of the problem. Of the countless suggestions for the settlement of the strike that poured in upon the conferees, a majority are said to have emanated from merchants, bankers and newspaper men in the anthracite towns whose business was hurt by the suspension. But there were no public groups capable of focusing opinion and making it effective.

The only public official who energetically bestirred himself to settle the strike before it was ended by mutual exhaustion was Governor Pinchot, and his maturely considered recommendations aroused no responsive support outside of his official family and the miners who believed in his disinterested integrity. Certainly no social agencies, no groups of public-spirited volunteers rallied to his support when his political enemies heaped indignity upon him and his program by alleging that he was moved solely by considerations of political expediency.

President Coolidge's request that he be given the emergency powers recommended by the United States Coal Commission was disregarded not only by Congress but also by the public at large. Outside of a few editorial writers, almost no one, certainly no groups of social workers or public-spirited individuals, paid any attention to the carefully drafted proposals of the forty-odd engineers and economists who addressed an open letter to the disputants on December 5, although such men as Henry R. Seager, Samuel McCune Lindsey, Wesley C. Mitchell, Edwin R. A. Seligman and Royal Meeker were among those who signed the letter.

The attempts of the Committee on Coal and Power sponsored by the League for Industrial Democracy to marshall liberal and radical opinion behind its program of adjustment were equally unavailing. Senator Copeland's success in persuading the Senate to call upon the President to intervene had no practical effect and was not taken seriously beyond the inner circles of his political constituency. The announcement that Senator Wheeler proposes to introduce a bill for the chartering of a Federal Anthracite Company has awakened so little interest that it is doubtful whether the bill if introduced will ever get out of committee. The entire record is one of public ineptitude and the failure of public-spirited individuals and groups to develop coherence through which their scattered purposes might have produced results.

Nor is there any evidence that even those individuals who manifested some sense of civic obligation during the anthracite deadlock are taking any steps to bring to bear upon the settlement the steady influence of outside interest without which it is likely to lose such constructive vitality as at the moment it may possess. For there is little assurance in the new agreement that it will convert the tradition of conflict, out of which the deadlock grew, into a spirit of cooperation, or that it will prevent interruptions of anthracite production even within the five-year period for which it is to run, without the support or pressure of sustained outside interest.

The deadlock began when the operators refused to con-

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sider the miners' demands for wage increases, the check-off and other concessions which they believed would increase the costs of production. There is no reason to believe that the miners have given up their determination to win these demands in spite of their temporary defeat. The operators' early insistence upon a plan of arbitration that would leave the determination of wage scales to an odd numbered board of impartial outsiders was probably due to their belief that such arbitration would result in a scaling down of wages. There is no evidence in the agreement that they have given up this hope. The compromise scheme of arbitration actually adopted is no guarantee against a deadlock, not only at the expiration of the five-year period but annually after June 1, 1925 when "either party may, in writing, propose modifications in the wage scales." The board of two provided in Article III of the agreement is "obligated, within ninety days after appointment, to arrive at a decision on all issues in controversy, and to that end shall formulate their own rules and methods of procedure and may enlarge the board to an odd number, in which event the majority shall be binding." The miners' leaders, in claiming victory before the rank and file on the ground that the agreement does not mean "arbitration," have openly declared that in the event of a deadlock in the board of two on an issue which they regard as crucial they will see to it that the enlargement of the board to an odd number, which is permissive only, does not occur.

The Survey for March 1 pointed out editorially that the most promising section of the agreement is Article IV, which seems to express the desire of both parties to work out a basis of joint cooperation along the lines of the suggestion made in the open letter of the engineers and economists under date of December 5.

> We believe [ran that letter] that the responsibility for maintaining an uninterrupted supply of anthracite coal rests upon you, operators and miners, jointly . . . that no agreement will insure continuity of production and distribution in the future which fails to provide a continuing joint agency which will concern itself, not so much with the adjustment of grievances, as with the constructive consideration of the underlying economic and technical facts by which all questions of wages, working conditions and earnings must in the end be determined.

In acknowledging this letter on behalf of the operators, Major W. W. Inglis expressed his "hearty assent." President Lewis likewise concurred in the proposal in principle. It is upon such expressions that The Survey's editorial based the hope that Article IV which entrusts to the Board of Conciliation, exclusive of the umpire, the working out of a reciprocal program of cooperation and efficiency signified the dawn of a new era in the relations between management and men in the anthracite fields.

Yet unless the two groups receive the continuing moral support of interested outsiders, functioning as the official representatives of public opinion, the parties may, when they get back to the routine of their jobs, interpret this section of the agreement as merely an open door to a series of dickers over detached demands out of which friction has traditionally developed, rather than the beginning of a broad program of constructive cooperation. If the Board of Conciliation fails to induce the two sides to create a new agency such as the proposals of the engineers and economists contemplate, and undertakes to do the whole job itself, there is nothing in its past record of twenty-three years to indicate that any such plan of labor-management cooperation as that now in force on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, for example, will ever come out of its deliberations. Experience has shown that the capacity for cooperation in anthracite leadership greatly needs the re-enforcement of sustained and sympathetic outside interest. From what direction is that interest to come?

DURING the great bituminous strike of 1922 there developed a wide faith that the beginning of effective public participation in a solution of the ills of the coal industry would be the creation of a permanent federal fact finding agency. That belief was held so strongly by at least a small number of public-spirited individuals that it resulted in the creation of the United States Coal Commission. With the creation of the Commission itself, however, even those who had been responsible for its existence dropped out of the picture.

During the anthracite deadlock, largely no doubt because of my association with The Survey's special number on coal, March 1922, I received a number of requests from colleges and forums for interpretations of the coal problem. One of these took me to a forum conducted by the School of Citizenship and Public Affairs in Syracuse. In the discussion following my talk, a questioner asked me whether I did not think that the most important practical contribution which a group of public-spirited citizens, such as was there assembled, could make toward the solution of the problem would be to support a resolution which had within a few days been introduced into Congress calling for the creation of a fact-finding commission. In view of the circumstance that the published report of the United States Coal Commission of 1923 had only that week come from the government printer, the question had a peculiar interest. Instead of answering directly, I asked the audience of some five hundred men and women to indicate by a show of hands how many of them, if they had thought of it first, would themselves have put this question. So far as I could determine, the answer was unanimously in the affirmative. I had, of course, referred to the findings and recommendations of the United States Coal Commission in my talk. Nevertheless, by further questioning, I made as certain as possible that no one in that unusually intelligent and alert looking audience—including the coal dealers who were acting as ushers—clearly remembered the existence of the United States Coal Commission; that no one there had studied its findings; that no one had even a vague idea as to what the Commission's recommendations had been.

The Survey has repeatedly commented upon the failure of the Commission to hold open hearings and to devise some means, under the limitations of the statute creating it, to give wide currency to its findings and to marshal public support back of its recommendations. But in retrospect it seems clear that more important than any possible dereliction on the part of the Commission itself was the absence of any public agency or any group of public spirited individuals who might have conceived it their duty to follow the Commission's work intelligently, to focus public opinion upon its findings and recommendations and to sustain public and official interest in the problem toward the understanding of which the Commission's work was so important a contribu-

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tion. Had there been any such group or agency, it is hard to believe that my experience at Syracuse could have occurred or that public opinion could have remained so inarticulate, unfocussed and ineffective as it was for the entire term of the anthracite deadlock that lasted for the record-breaking period of 165 days.

This failure of social agencies and individuals to manifest interest in the problems of the industry, except at times when their own comfort is disturbed by strikes, is resented within the industry itself. This is illustrated by the bitter refusal of a coal mining engineer to lend his signature to the open letter of the economists and engineers of December 5, on the ground that he had no confidence that this group or any other group of social reformers would sustain their interest in the problems of the industry. For a number of years the community in which he lived, an isolated but typical mining town, had endured extraordinary hardship due to unemployment and irregularity of employment which had landed scores and hundreds of families in destitution. He felt that the whole social service and social reform movement had become so preoccupied with routine jobs, had become so completely urbanized and limited in outlook that even its leaders failed to discover the analogy between the sweat shop conditions in the city tenements to which so much of their early energy and enthusiasm had been directed and the human misery and exploitation which is today so widespread not only in the unionized coal fields of Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois but also in the non-union fields of West Virginia and Kentucky, where low paid and stockaded workers are piecing out a modest living at the expense of the standards for which their brothers in the unionized fields are making incredible sacrifices. Except for an occasional district nurse, he could find no evidence that the social "uplifters" had any sustained interest in the life of the coal communities.

DO not the facts implicit in these incidents constitute an indictment and challenge to the leadership of the social professions and of such public groups as those represented by the signers of the open letter of December 5. And is it not incumbent upon these groups to meet the challenge by recognizing their moral obligation to sustain the interest to which they profess when strikes are on?

Of course, it is not to be anticipated that either the miners or the operators would rush forward to welcome any such outside "meddling," however worthily inspired. No important reform within the community, or within industry of the type in which social workers and economists have traditionally interested themselves, has ever failed to arouse resistance. Tenement house and health campaigns have been opposed by their beneficiaries almost as often as by owners of tenements and sweat shops. The point is that in a civilized community citizens have an independent right and moral obligation to concern themselves with conditions that constitute a public menace. The persistence and increasing acuteness of the human problems in the coal fields is largely due to the timidity or moral slackness of social agencies and ordinarily public spirited individuals in meeting this obligation.

But a beginning has been made in this direction. The Division of Industrial Studies of the Russell Sage Foundation under the direction of Mary Van Kleeck has for years concerned itself with important phases of industrial relations in the coal industry. The Institute of Economics at Washington is actively interesting itself in the coal problem, a fact evidenced by the extraordinarily able volume by Walton Hamilton and Helen R. Wright, The Case of Bitminous Coal, which is to be followed by a second volume devoted to various proposals for the solution of the economic and social ills of the coal industry. Carter Goodrich, assistant professor of economics in the University of Michigan has recently published The Miner's Freedom, in commenting upon which R. Dawson Hill of Coal Age says, "He writes like a coal technician, with a full grasp of his subject." The proposals of the economists and engineers to which I have repeatedly referred owe their existence largely to the initiative of Morris L. Cooke and a number of his fellow members in the Taylor Society. F. Ernest Johnson, executive secretary of the Department of Research and Education of the Federal Council of Churches, has been active in arousing in members of his group a sense of duty with respect to the disastrous human consequences not only of conflict in the anthracite fields but also of the war of attrition that is being carried on against the miners' union as the result of the Jacksonville agreement. John B. Andrews, as secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation has for years been carrying on a vigorous educational and legislative campaign for the control of coal mine hazards.

Why should not the National Conference of Social Work find a place for these men and women in its next program? Why should it not entrust to them the organization of a standing committee on coal? Or if this is not the appropriate procedure, why should not the initiative be taken by the Federal Council of Churches, the Russell Sage Foundation, or the Taylor Society? Or again, why should not the group of economists and engineers hold together and develop the proposals in which at the height of the strike they showed such a lively interest?

Unless some such action is taken either by organized groups or through the voluntary initiative of public spirited individuals, what likelihood is there that public opinion will not continue to fail the anthracite industry in the constructive development of the new agreement as it did during the recent suspension, or that the disaster of a 165-day deadlock in anthracite will not be re-enacted on a grander scale when the present bituminous agreement expires in March 1927?

A Body Blow at Opium

ON February 9, Lord Reading, the Viceroy of India made a statement on the future opium policy of the government of India which is probably the most important pronouncement made on the opium question since the abolition of the Indo-Chinese Opium Traffic.

His declaration of policy contained a definite promise to abolish the export of opium from India, for any except strictly medical purposes, within a definite term of years. The reduction being gradual up to the point of extinction. Legislation was to be immediately undertaken in the Assembly and the Council of State to implement this declaration of policy. The amount of money at present yielded by the export of opium from India is about £1,500,000, or approximately $7,500,000. It will be necessary to raise the equivalent of this sum by fresh taxation just as the £4,000,000 relinquished through the cessation of the export of opium to China had to be found from other sources.

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This new declaration of policy, while probably unexpected by the great majority of those most closely in touch with the opium policy, is nevertheless the result of a process of change in the official attitude in India towards the question of opium export. Until September 1925, the attitude of the government in India towards the export of opium indicated a complete contentment with the "certificate" system. The government refused to undertake to question the use to which its opium might eventually be put, provided the importing country certified that the opium was used for purposes "legitimate" under the Hague Convention. That the Hague Convention temporarily continued opium smoking in territories contiguous to China, and that the "legitimate" use to which opium imported to Singapore from India was put in Singapore was *smoking,* everybody knew and nobody denied. The government of India, however, felt it impossible to go behind the certificate system and question the use to which the importing governments put their purchases.

However in September 1925, the Secretary to the Finance Department made the important announcement that export to Macao and Persia had been stopped on the ground of extensive smuggling taking place from these countries, and further intimated that the government was prepared to accept a measure of responsibility *even for lawful export covered by certificate.* The change in policy here was exceedingly important, and it has now been crowned by the latest statement of the viceroy whereby there is to be a complete abolition of export opium except for medical purposes within a term of years.

One may hazard that such a decision is not likely to have been taken without some consultation with the Colonial Office in London, which is responsible for the Crown Colonies, and we may, therefore, expect to see some advance in policy in the direction of discontinuance of opium smoking in these territories.

TURNING to the question of the use of opium in India itself, we find here also a remarkable development, not so much in policy as in the understanding of the facts. Hitherto reformers have held that the use of opium in India for eating was a practice fraught with evil consequences and that it ought to be as speedily as possible prevented. Official apologists have, on the other hand, held that opium addiction was very rare in India, that opium did no harm, that it was in invaluable household medicine, especially in a country where doctors are still few in proportion to the mass of the population, and that it could not be reduced to a severely medical and scientific use without causing widespread suffering. Facts have now been revealed through government sources which have shed a flood of light on the whole subject. It appears both that the reformers are right when they deplore the opium use in India, and that the government is right when it says that the use is not widespread, at least to the point of dangerous addiction. The figures of opium consumption calculated in pounds per 10,000 of the population per annum indicate that there are a number of black spots in India where opium consumption runs up to high figures and that outside these areas there is comparatively little addiction to opium eating. Some figures may prove illuminating.

The League of Nations figure for a safe opium consumption in a country which has a developed medical service is 12 pounds per 10,000 of the population per annum. For India as a whole the average is 24. In the Brahmaputra Valley of Assam the figure runs up as high as 474. In Calcutta it is 287. In parts of Orissa it is 110. In the delta of the Godavari it is 134. In the cotton spinning regions of the Bombay Presidency the figures are about 80 and 90, and run as high as 124. In Sind the figures are about 100 and in the Central Punjab from 100 to 120. Burma has an average of 56 and is the only province where most of the districts conform reasonably to the average. Three districts show figures below 20; eight below 60; while Mergui, where the tin miners are, shows 294. Many Bengal districts, and some in the Punjab, run 6 or below; one in the United Provinces shows only 1.6. The curious thing is that very high figures and very low figures can exist in districts practically contiguous. Alongside the high Calcutta figure, for instance, one observes a very low figure for rural Bengal, or one compares the high figure for the Godavari Delta with the almost complete absence of opium from the Tamil regions of the Madras Presidency.

ONE or two things may be inferred from this study. The first is that the extreme unevenness of the returns demonstrate beyond the reach of cavil that there is no such thing as a necessary Indian habit of opium-eating, deeply ingrained in the people as a whole and impossible to up-root. Clearly, where consumption varies so widely as between Assam and the districts where a figure lower than the League of Nations figure is reached, we are confronting a problem which demands, first, the investigation of these limited areas where excesses exist, and then the removal of the special causes thus discovered.

Second, it is noticeable that a number of the areas where opium consumption is highest are industrial and urban. This is not true of Assam or of the Godavari delta, but it is true of most of the other places where excess is found and the implications are obvious.

Third, the revelation of these black spots suggests that the policy to be followed now in India should be the eradication of the excessive use in these defined areas, probably by a process of rationing the total amount of opium sold through the opium shops, and possibly by a registration of consumers where the consumption is very high. The policy urged by the reformers has been, hitherto, the adoption of a medical and scientific test for all use of opium. It is impossible to deny that such a test is difficult to enforce in India, and it appears now that the same result would probably in fact be reached if efforts were made to bring down the excess use, where it is found, to the present Indian average and then to get it down to the League of Nations figure for medical and scientific use of 12 pounds per 10,000 of the population per annum.

Such a plan of campaign for the domestic use of opium in India is possible and within the power of the joint forces of government action and moral and scientific education.

Considering the illuminating analysis of the government figures of consumption in India now available, and the radical advance in export policy outlined by Lord Reading, it is rapidly becoming a question now (if one who is not American may make the suggestion) whether the new situation does not require a readjustment of the attitude of the United States towards the international anti-opium movement which was largely interrupted at Geneva a year ago.

WILLIAM PATON

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Seeing Social Work Whole

An Experiment in Devising Community Measuring Sticks

By Raymond Clapp

In the January Midmonthly Dr. Haven Emerson and John Ihlder urged the use of measuring sticks in the more conscious guidance of social progress. Here is a bunch of such tools devised by the American Association for Community Organization, which is now trying them out. This preliminary report of an ingenious study merits careful reading by everybody who is interested in seeing a community whole.

COMMUNITY fund budget committees usually start on their work feeling that their main task is to reduce duplication and promote "business" efficiency in social work. But a very few years brings them to the realization that their great responsibility is to make the best provision possible within the funds available for improved and extended service, the opportunities for which present themselves on every hand.

With this heavy responsibility weighing upon them they begin to look for help. They have surveys and studies and investigations of this agency, of that need, and of the other field of service. Economies are achieved, old institutions change their programs to meet new opportunities, new agencies are established. All these are possible as the community fund is increasing the contribution money available for social work by from 50 per cent to 200 per cent. But sooner or later a saturation point seems to have been reached. There seems to be some limit to the amount the city will contribute. New money comes slowly but new needs continue to be discovered as well as improved methods for accomplishing present tasks.

It is no longer sufficient to know that a project is well thought out and really needed. It must be shown to be of prior urgency.

When we reach the stage of weighing the relative urgency of need for a dispensary, a summer camp, a more nearly adequate fund for the boarding of dependent children and an increased capacity for the aged or incurable, we begin to realize a great lack of standards or methods of comparison between the various fields of service. We see the need for a comprehensive view of the community's welfare facilities as a whole—for development of a community program in which plans for hospital development, health promotion, child care, recreation, etc., will each have its proper place.

Our efforts in the past have been like those of a group of crusading forces, working more or less independently, maintaining themselves by foraging for themselves as they go. The community fund movement is an attempt to organize these foraging groups into an army with a plan of campaign and a central commissary department.

We are now at the point of wanting a census of our army and of our allies, the governmental welfare agencies; and we want to compare this census with similar figures for other cities. If other cities facing similar problems have found need and use for more hospital beds or visiting nurses, or have needed fewer orphanages because they have kept more homes together by adequate relief measures, may not their experience be a guide to us?

Just as the first step in the estimating of an ideal family budget is the study of the actual expenditures of many real families, so the consideration of an ideal community welfare budget needs, as a basis, a tabulation of the actual expenditures of many cities.

It is with these considerations in mind that the American Association for Community Organization, including in its membership 150 councils of social agencies, welfare federations and community funds, is making an experiment in its Study of Volume and Cost of Social Work in which thirty of the larger American cities are cooperating.

The information being secured includes the total expense of services in the fields of family welfare and relief, child care, hospitals and health promotion, recreation and character building, such as are usually financed through community funds and welfare federations. The expense of parallel governmental services financed from tax funds is likewise being included.

This information is being secured in such a way that it is possible to compare not only the total expense of these services for various cities but so that it is possible also to compare the cost of care of children in orphanages and in foster homes; the cost of care of the sick in hospitals, in dispensaries and by bedside nursing; the cost of character building through the settlement, young men's and women's associations, scouting, etc. The services are classified in this way into forty different groups. In addition to the expense, income is classified into contributions, endowment income, earnings from service rendered and tax revenue. This classification of income is secured for each of the above forty groups.

While comparison of financial figures will be of interest, it is of comparatively little value without some indication of the volume and character of service rendered. So the information to be collected includes the simplest possible statistics of service rendered. For the hospitals, for instance, we have the number of beds, the number of patients admitted and the number of patient days care, free, part-pay, and full pay, all classified by character of case where

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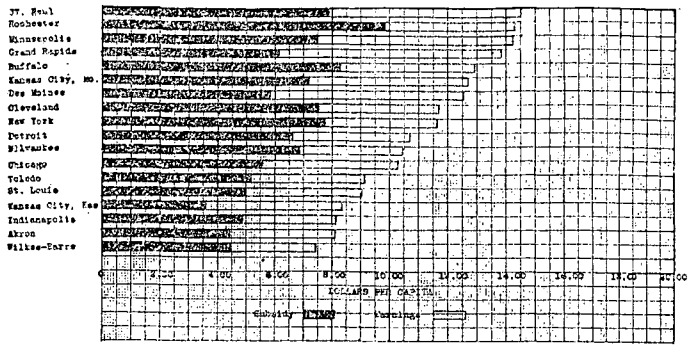

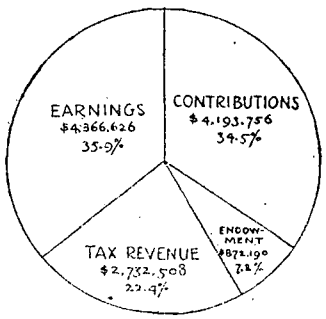

CHART 1, *at the left, shows the relative size of the sources of the total current income of social welfare agencies in Cleveland in* 1924. CHART 2, *above, classifies total current income for social welfare, per capita, in the* 17 *cities studied, into income from "subsidy" or unearned support, and from "earnings"*

such information is available. We also ask for the number of professional employes, the total paid them in salaries, the total number of other employes and amount paid them and all other current expense.

The questions asked are few and simple because it is an arduous task to collect even the simplest figures for all public and private agencies in a large city and we prefer to get a few basic figures for a considerable number of cities rather than a mass of information from only two or three.

Because of the tremendous amount of work involved, this study can be carried on only as a cooperative enterprise; the council of social agencies or welfare federation or community foundation in each city studied secures the information for that city.

Care has been exercised to get figures which are correct, complete and comparable. Questionnaires were revised and approved at a conference of representatives of twelve cities. Each city is visited by the director of the study and agency schedules reviewed in detail, then revised and completed before that city's figures are used. While the figures presented here are not perfect they are probably within 5 per cent of the correct totals.

Certain figures on income have been compiled and charted from seventeen cities for the purpose of getting the significance of the study before social workers and their communities. These are nearly all mid-western cities and are chosen because they were the first to get their figures sufficiently complete for review, correction and tabulation. The final study will include additional cities together with corrections from a final recheck now in progress.

The first chart shows the percentage of income from various sources in one city, Cleveland, for social welfare agencies, both public and private and including those private agencies sharing in joint finance and those securing funds independently. It shows a grand total income of $12,165,080 for a community of 1,040,000 population, a per capita of $11.70. (The metropolitan area is used in these studies because it admits of sounder comparison.)

The second chart shows a comparison of cities on a per capita basis. It shows a range from $7.46 to $14.52 for total income and from $3.60 to $9.78 for subsidy. (By subsidy is meant the sum received from contributions, endowments and taxes.)

One of the most striking facts which has been brought out by the study to date is the wide variation in proportion of subsidy which comes from taxes and contributions. Chart 3 shows that taxes range from 35 per cent to 67 per cent of the total subsidy, contributions vary from 28 per cent to 54 per cent and endowment from 2 per cent to 12 per cent.

The very large extent of health and hospital service as compared with other service is indicated by Chart 4 which shows the distribution of total income per capita between hospital and other health agencies as over against all other social welfare agencies. Of a total per capita of $11.70 in Cleveland over half or $6.01 is for health and hospitals.

The extent of dependence by four main fields of service

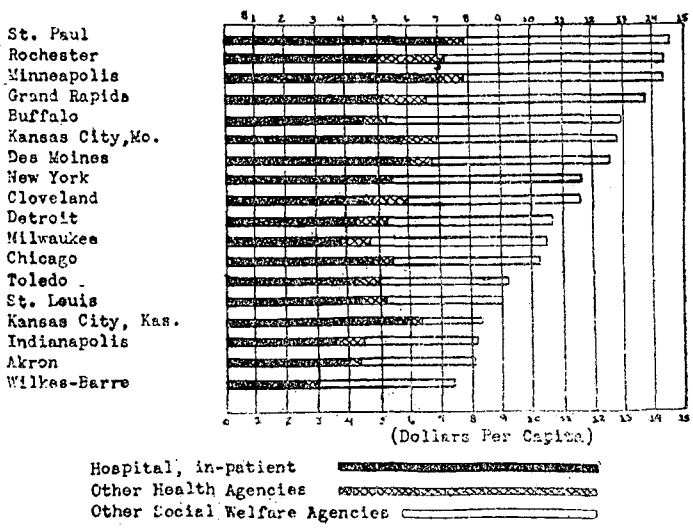

CHART 4—*Total current income for* 1924 *in* 17 *cities of hospitals (for in-patient service), of other health agencies, and of all other social welfare agencies, in dollars per capita of population*

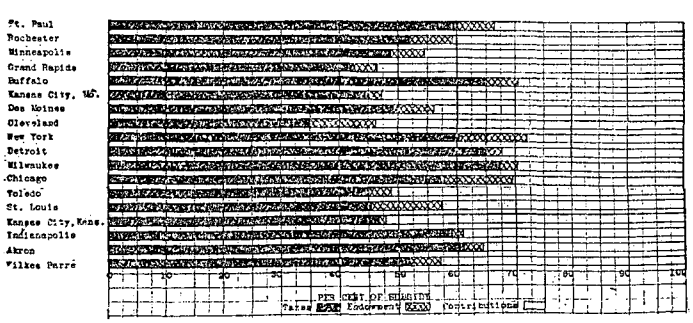

CHART 3—*Total unearned current income for social welfare in* 17 *cities, classified to show proportion of the "subsidy" received from taxes, endowment, and contributions*

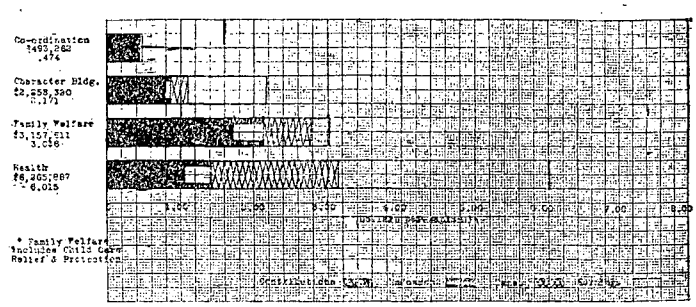

CHART 5—*Total current income for* 1924 *of social welfare agencies in Cleveland, in dollars per capita of population, classified for each of four groups of services into the amount received from each source of income*

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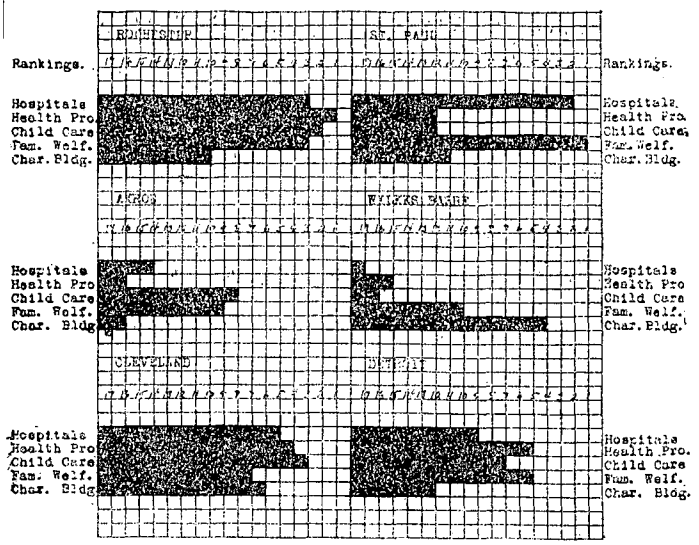

CHART 6—*How six cities rank (among the 17 studied) in "subsidy" or "unearned support" in five main welfare fields—hospitals, health promotion, child care, family welfare and character building*

upon each of the four sources of income is illustrated by Chart 5, which shows that in Cleveland the health and character building agencies are the ones which receive the bulk of earnings. Family welfare including child care, and coordination, on the other hand, are almost entirely dependent upon subsidy or unearned support, that is the sum from contributions, endowment, and taxes. Again this chart illustrates the fact that public support through taxes carries a larger proportion of the subsidy or unearned support of the health field than of the other fields.

Strong points and weaknesses, relative over and under development, are suggested by ranking the cities on the basis of per capita support of five main welfare fields. This is done in the accompanying table. Chart 6 makes this clearer for six cities. Each bar indicates how the particular city ranks in a single field, e.g., hospitals, as compared with the sixteen other cities. The length of the bar represents not the per capita or total expenditure, but only the *rank* of the particular city. As has been seen cities spend far more money on hospitals than on any other single welfare activity. The short bar for hospitals in Wilkes-Barre represents more *dollars* spent than the long bar for character building, but Wilkes-Barre ranks low in one field and high in the other as compared with what other cities spend in the corresponding fields.

As has been said, we have arrived at reasonable items of expenditures in family budgets by comparing what many families spend for these items. Just so community chests are wanting to know how they compare with each other in their expenditures for various purposes. These comparisons will give clues as to how well any city is doing by the different welfare fields. Hard and fast rules will not be established but questions for study at any rate will be raised. Cleveland, for example, shows a relative evenness of rank in the five fields. This does not mean that she is spending practically the same amount of money in each field, but that as compared with what other cities spend for each field Cleveland does almost equally well by all.

Each city will be seen to have emphasized certain fields more than others. Even Cleveland shows a relatively smaller development of support for family welfare than for other fields. But Detroit and Rochester show comparative lack of community interest, when measured by financial support, in character building. Wilkes-Barre, on the other hand, shows this field as a decided favorite. St. Paul has developed support for her hospitals and family welfare out of proportion to other fields. Akron appears to be behind in hospitals, health promotion, and character building. These points, raised by the table and Chart 6, are in no sense an evaluation of the work done in these fields in the cities mentioned. But they do indicate the need for inquiry into the actual situation in each case.

But the similar ranking of the different cities in the four main sources of support is equally interesting and significant. See Chart 7. The variations here may explain some of the discrepancies in the rankings of the different welfare fields. Cleveland's relatively low rank in taxes probably explains her lower rank in family welfare. For Cleveland has no

RANK OF 17 CITIES IN TOTAL UNEARNED SUPPORT OF SOCIAL WELFARE AGENCIES AND IN TOTAL SUBSIDY OF CERTAIN GROUPS OF AGENCIES

	All social welfare	*Child care*	*All family welfare relief & protection*	*Hospitals only*	*Health promotion only*	*All character building*
Rochester	1	2	3	3	1	10
Buffalo	2	1	2	4	13	8
St. Paul	3	12	1	2	12	11
Cleveland	4	3	7	5	4	6
Minneapolis	5	11	8	1	9	2
Kansas City, Mo.	6	6	12	6	3	7
Milwaukee	7	4	11	8	6	5
Detroit	8	7	5	9	5	12
Grand Rapids	9	15	6	13	2	9
Des Moines	10	14	4	16	10	3
Chicago	11	9	13	11	14	1
Toledo	12	5	14	15	8	13
St. Louis	13	13	15	7	11	15
Indianapolis	14	10	16	10	7	14
Wilkes Barre	15	16	10	17	15	4
Akron	16	8	9	14	16	16
Kansas City, Kans.	17	17	17	12	17	17

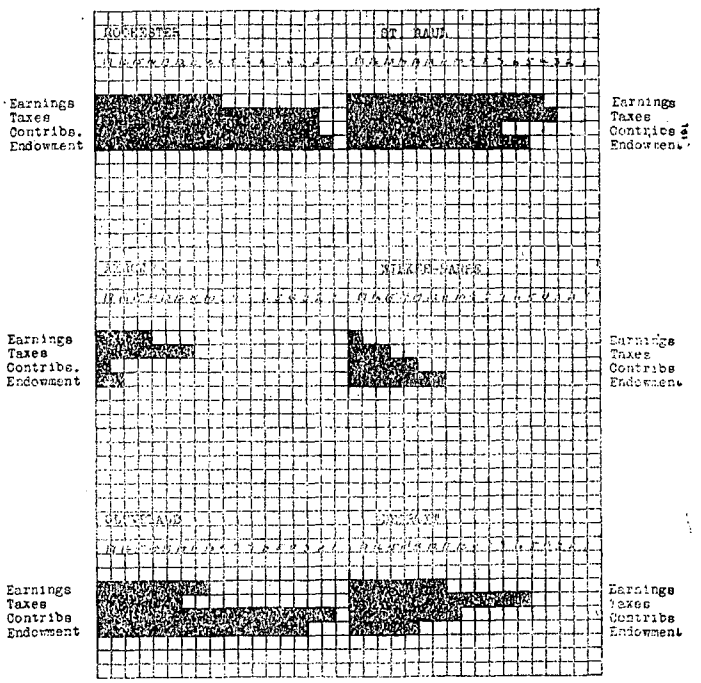

CHART 7—*How six cities rank (among the 17 studied) in the amount received from main sources of support*

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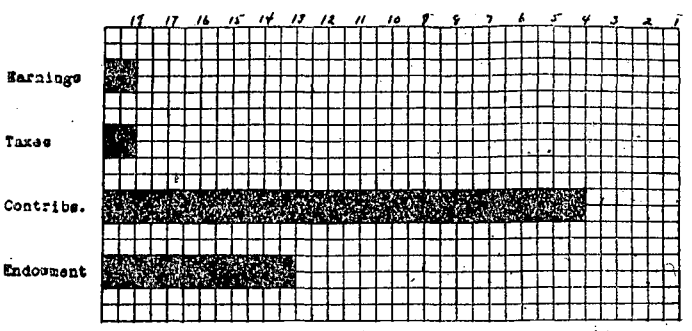

CHART 8—*How Wilkes-Barre ranks in sources of support for hospitals*

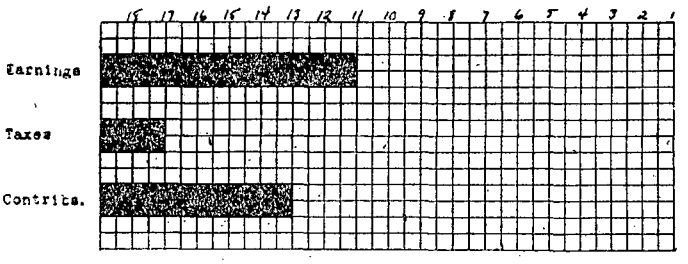

CHART 9—*Her rank in sources of support for health promotion*

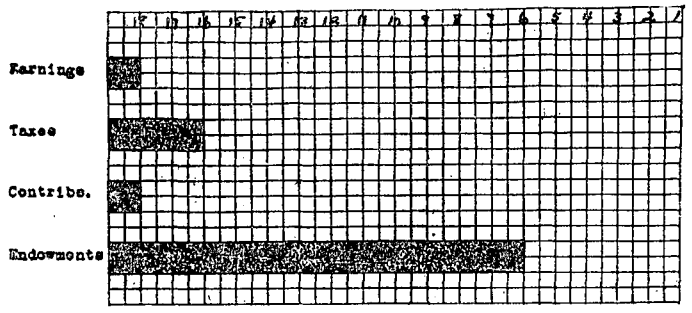

CHART 10—*Her rank in sources of support for child care*

public outdoor relief. Is Rochester's lack of earnings connected with her high rank in hospital subsidy?

A detailed analysis and application of this kind has been made in the city of Wilkes-Barre. The city's unevenness in welfare development shown in Chart 6 has been studied by ranking the four sources of support for each of the five main welfare fields. The results are shown in Charts 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12. And the definite implications of the discrepancies in support have been discovered by a visit to that city.

Chart 6 shows Wilkes-Barre ranks 17th in support of hospitals. Chart 8 shows that Wilkes-Barre is not niggardly in her voluntary contributions to hospitals. But her government officials apparently do much less in supporting hospitals out of tax funds than in other cities. Also the smallness of earnings indicates the under-hospitalization actually existing in the city and the need for an even more extensive program of building rooms for pay patients than is now going on.

Chart 9 indicates why Wilkes-Barre makes a better showing in health promotion services than in hospitals. Earnings and taxes contribute more as compared with other cities than in the case of hospitals. But still public officials appear to do relatively little. Chart 10 again locates responsibility in Wilkes-Barre for her low rank in child care. Voluntary contributions, taxes, and earnings, all three show relative neglect of this field. The good showing of endowments is due to one children's home with an endowmen sufficient for all its purposes. So even in a generally under nourished field there can be highly favored single agencies.

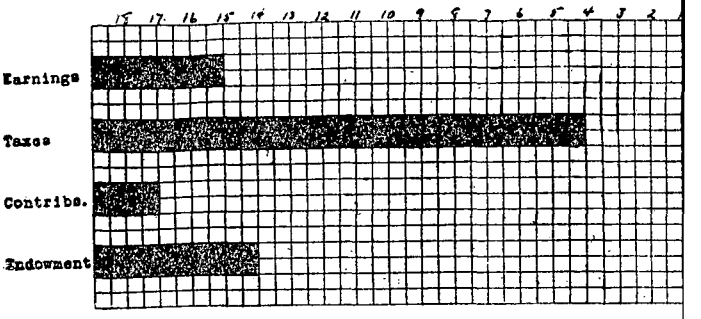

CHART 11—*Her rank in sources of support for family welfare*

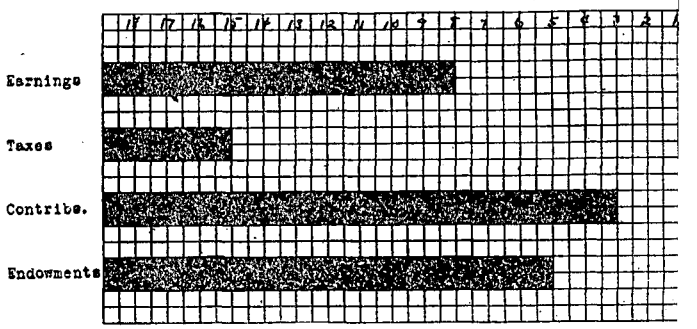

CHART 12—*Her rank in sources of support for character development. These five charts taken together indicate for the single city of Wilkes-Barre the relative development (as compared with 1 other cities) in each type of income for each of five major welfare fields. Taken together they offer an objective clue to the understanding of Wilkes-Barre's problem of social financing as a whole*

Charts 11 and 12 explain the source of Wilkes-Barre's far better rank in family welfare and character building than in hospitals, health promotion and child care. Publi officials have been generous in providing money for family welfare. They have been so, out of all proportion to thei interest in the other four fields. This tax support of family welfare keeps Wilkes-Barre out of the lowest rank in total tax support as shown in Chart 7.

Chart 12 again accounts for the same city's high rank fo character building on Chart 6. In earnings, contributions and endowments, Wilkes-Barre does better by this field than any other. And even taxes do relatively more than for any field except family welfare.

Enough has been said to indicate how this Study of Volume and Cost of Social Work may help a city to reconsider its philanthropic and budget habits. The discrepancies, the favoritisms and neglects, are accidents indicative of the lack of inclusive program making. Appreciable changes cannot be made in present programs by depriving agencies of existing support. This would probably wrench too severely the past habits and interests of a community. Nor should good work already established be destroyed. But such facts as have been presented can be useful in changing the rates of future growth in the different fields. The neglected can be given a larger share of increases in total support. Sources of support doing less than their share in total contributions can be stimulated in the direction of the under-developed activities. Primarily this Study will contribute whatever value comes from seeing a problem not only in separate parts but whole.

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Houses to Let?

THE signs mount up—so that even in New York's bituminous murk they may be read against the sky—that something will presently be done about housing. Housing, that is, for the 70 per cent of New York's families whose incomes are less than $2,500 a year, for whom only 3 per cent of the new apartments built in a single year—1924 for example—are available at current rents.

It is high time. The State Commission of Housing and Regional Planning lists in a recent report 23 tenement buildings which were condemned forty years ago by the Tenement House Commission because they were in the middle of the block, covered the full area of the plots they occupied, had totally dark and unventilated inner rooms. Of those 23 buildings recognized as a public menace in 1885 *fourteen are still occupied wholly or partly for residential purposes.* The Commission comments:

> If we may accept the average rate of demolition for the years 1909 to 1925 inclusive as representative of the continued life span of old-law tenements in New York city it will be 138 years before these sub-standard buildings are abolished.

What are the signs? Here are some of them.

Aggressive publicity by that same commission, which has devoted itself to a triple adventure in public enlightenment—recommending rent legislation, organizing regional plan projects in various parts of the state, and preaching the need of constructive housing effort.

Equally aggressive espousal of a housing program by Governor Smith, reflected, perhaps, in repeated announcements by the new mayor of New York that he will appoint a commission to survey the city.

Newspaper advocacy, particularly by the Evening World, of slum clearance and the erection of sensibly-planned tenements along lines proposed by Andrew J. Thomas, architect of the Metropolitan Life demonstration tenements.

Public interest such as that which bubbled over at the recent Better Homes Exhibit organized by the League of Mothers' Clubs of the United Neighborhood Houses.

Growing concern over the hazards of the flimsy frame houses which represent the major contribution of speculative builders to the present need of low-cost housing.

Occasional—but painfully limited—demonstrations of intelligent city housing by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, by John D. Rockefeller, Jr., and by the City Housing Corporation, whose expanding program (repeatedly reviewed in The Survey) has now caught the attention of leaders of the railway brotherhoods who are asking how labor's own accumulations of credit can best be put to the service of housing.

THERE is before the legislature of New York a specific proposal, sponsored with his usual vigor by the governor, which would set up a novel apparatus for building apartments on a large scale to rent for $12.50 a room, or less, in Manhattan, and for smaller rates in other boroughs of the city and other cities of the state. In its simplest terms, the plan as proposed is as follows:

> A State Housing Board is created to study the situation, plan projects for housing and supervise their execution. A State Housing Bank is set up to aid in financing such projects, up to two-thirds of their total cost, by the sale of tax-exempt bonds carrying interest not to exceed five per cent. Limited dividend corporations are authorized which will undertake specific projects, will contribute one-third of the cost of each, will do the actual construction, and will then lease from the State Housing Bank, which retains title, the finished buildings, will operate them under fixed rent restrictions, amortize the building costs, pay dividends of not more than six per cent on their own stock, and operate in other respects like a private lessee.

The heart of the plan is, first, the provision of funds for building at a rate which sharply reduces present financing costs, which with second and inferior mortgages now run as high as nine per cent, and second, the authority given the Housing Bank to condemn, under the power of eminent domain, the land which may be needed for the projects approved by the bank and the board together, and so to secure plots sufficiently large to make construction economical.

Without going further into the details of the plan, and without estimating its chances of adoption by a Republican legislature which has a traditional hostility to the governor's suggestions, one must realize that such a proposal may profoundly influence public opinion. The "legislative finding" which introduces the bill is significant of a changing concept of public responsibility for housing:

> It is hereby declared that the conditions which exist in certain areas of the state in relation to the housing of wage-earners are a menace to the health, safety, welfare, comfort and convenience of the citizens of the state and lead to undue and unsanitary congestion and living conditions and deprive wage earners of convenient access from their homes to working centers. Correction of this condition by private enterprise under prevailing conditions for the investment and expenditure of private capital and the management and operation of housing facilities erected thereby being impossible, it is essential that the investment of private funds at low rates of interest, the acquisition at fair prices of parcels of land sufficient for such housing accommodations, and the construction and operation of such housing accommodations, all under public supervision, should be made possible upon such terms that such housing accommodations may be constructed, maintained and operated in accordance with proper standards of health and sanitation and at a cost which will permit a monthly rental not to exceed the following prices per room. . . . Accordingly, there are created and authorized the agencies and instrumentalities hereinafter prescribed . . . and their necessity in the public interest is hereby declared a matter of legislative determination.

There are, of course, plenty of people who in the laissez faire tradition are willing to leave the production of houses, at all economic levels, to the initiative of private capital without governmental encouragement other than sporadic tax exemption. Our American custom is to impose certain restrictions through zoning laws and building codes, more or less safeguarding public health and safety and sometimes conserving the amenities which we persuade ourselves are of common concern to the public and the property owner—and to stop there. To the testimony of English and Continental experience that restrictive laws don't eliminate old bad housing, that private capital operating competitively won't build good new housing at low rents, and that public subsidy seems to be the only way to accomplish both results, we have turned a deaf ear. The New York proposals are far short of public subsidy; they ingeniously avoid even the pledging of public credit; they do put inducements in the way of private capital under public supervision to do what so obviously needs to be done. Housing for the wage-earner, as the chairman of the New York State Commission puts it, has been nobody's business; this bill makes it somebody's business.

G. S.

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The Common Welfare

LIFE, liberty, the pursuit of happiness—we link those watch cries of the Old Declaration in a ringing phrase, but this is not the only decade in which sentiment marshalled behind one of them has undercut the gains of those who have struggled for all three. Owen R. Lovejoy gave the three new human content in fighting for them all. As secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, from 1907 on, he sought to safeguard the most precious years of life, to gain freedom from premature labor for new generations, to throw open to every child that opportunity for growth and education without which his pursuits are like to lead up blind alleys.

He led in carrying that fight to every state capital with gains won, and thrice through Congress successfully, only to have it balked in the courts by the brittle legal formulations of earlier epochs, by checks and balances which men for the sake of their liberties had thrown for other purposes about state's rights—only in the end to have it go down in the post-war recoil against any further federal interference with local self-government. The proposed constitutional amendment lost not on its merits, but as part of a general backwash; distorted to its own purposes by one wing of the opposition which employed those ruthless instrumentalities of propaganda which had regimented men in the war years.

Now is the testing time, to await the issue in the laggard states; and after twenty years Owen Lovejoy has earned a respite. At sixty he resigns to join his family in Florida where they have made their home for eight years past.

IF the states rise to that issue and, state by state, meet the standard of a civilization which conserves its young, then well and good. Social reformers of Lovejoy's stamp have never been sticklers for method. The national agency which he built up to a strong pliant instrument of service to democracy will aid them at every point. Today, the states have the power, if they will, to protect the half million children still at work. As he set down eight months ago, it is "now or never for those children." Federal action has been staved off; the obligation to make good rests on those who balked it. And those who sincerely undertake to meet that obligation will have the help of the wide fellowship which he inspired; of the capable leadership which he leaves at post. His senior associate, Wiley H. Swift of North Carolina, head of the legislative and investigation department of the National Committee, becomes its acting secretary.

If the states fail, the issue will once more be joined; and again, their long time chief will be found among the volunteers in the thick of the fight.

Meanwhile, every fellow worker who has touched shoulders with Owen Lovejoy, every pioneer of the social welfare, every advocate of unpopular causes who feels the saw-edge of reprisal, will cherish the gift he has made to us all—his courage, his unembittered humor, the lift and gleam with which in our time he reinvested the American quest.

IT is evident that only through international control, federal control, and state control of narcotic drugs, can the evils of addiction be closed in upon and effectively lessened. The United States has taken the lead in securing international control through The Hague Convention, which requires that

> The Contracting Powers shall enact pharmacy laws or regulations to limit *exclusively to medical and legitimate purposes* the manufacture, sale, and use of morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts unless laws or regulations on the subject are already in existence. [*Article* 9.]

The Harrison Anti-narcotic Act has provided for the federal control required by the Convention, and many states, of which New York is not one, have by statute supplied state control. The states are, however, helpless without federal support, both through federal regulation and the international regulation which can only be made effective by federal action.

Recently the United States Supreme Court has expressed a doubt of the validity of the Harrison Law, although it was sustained in two carefully reasoned opinions in 1919. [U. S. vs. Doremus, 249 U. S. 86, and Webb vs. U. S., 249 U. S. 96.] Justice McReynolds in an aside in his opinion in U. S. vs. Dougherty, decided January 4 of this year, says that the decisions declaring the act constitutional may have to be reviewed if the question is "properly presented." That it will be so presented we can trust to the many interested in the free sale or free use of narcotics.

The Harrison Act is a tax law, laying a tax on all who are concerned in the trade or professional use of narcotics, and this Justice thinks that recent cases declaring unconstitutional the child labor tax and the tax on produce exchanges may be inconsistent with the Doremus and Webb cases. [Child Labor Tax Case, 259 U. S. 16, Hill vs. Wallace, 259 U. S. 44.] In this he appears to have overlooked an essential difference in these statutes and the Harrison Act, commented on by Justice Taft in the child labor case. The act there in question contained a complete child labor act and then provided a penalty, in the form of a tax, for all who "knowingly depart from the prescribed course." The impost was not a tax, but a penalty for doing certain things which the law forbade and which Congress had no power to forbid. The Harrison Act provides not a penalty but

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clearly a tax and the regulatory provisions were held "to have a reasonable relation to the collection of the tax."

The Court must flatly contradict itself if it now reverses the Doremus case and can hardly support itself by the child labor tax decision.

But even if the Harrison Act should be held invalid as a taxing act, it may be sustained as carrying out the duty of the United States under the Hague Convention. "All treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land." [Constitution, Article VI, Section 2.] Under Article 9 of the Convention the contracting powers agree to regulate the traffic and it is a well known rule of constitutional law that legislation carrying out the obligations of a treaty may be passed by Congress, even though, without the treaty, such legislation would be exclusively within the powers of the states.

That the treaty is clearly a proper subject of negotiation between states no one will contest. Without international action, protection against the ravages of narcotic drugs is impossible and it will not be maintained that the United States is without the power to act to protect its citizens internationally against the curse of addiction. But to make international action effective Congress must have the power to pass the acts which will carry out the terms of the Convention. The most recent use of the power is in the act carrying out the Migratory Bird Treaty with Canada. The Congress had no power before the treaty was ratified to protect migratory birds in the states, but to make the treaty provisions effective, it passed an act which fixed the maximum open season and in many details regulated the taking of the birds included in the international arrangement. Much truer of narcotic control than of migratory birds are the words of Justice Holmes in the opinion sustaining the act.

> Here a national interest of very nearly the first magnitude is involved. It can be protected only by national action in concert with that of another power. . . . It is not sufficient to rely upon the states. [Missouri vs. Holland, 252 U. S. 416.]

So the path to the poppy fields will not be opened for all time. Even if the Harrison Act is declared unconstitutional, an act based on the treaty may be urged on Congress, and it may go even further in its provisions than the present tax law.

DURING the past three months smallpox has been threatening the rival domains of California and Florida: ergo, the diverting picture of pot hastening to pronounce the kettle speckled. Los Angeles papers naturally prefer to feature the number of cases in Jacksonville or Tampa or Miami rather than to emphasize the malignant type of the disease in their own midst; Miami points accusing headlines at Tampa, until her own cases reach a number that cannot be ignored; while outside the immediate circle hotel operators who specialize in winter sports do not hesitate to remark on certain dangers to be found in milder climates.

No vaccinated city need fear smallpox; and the unvaccinated only if they insist in taking the familiar position of the ostrich, refusing to acknowledge the facts and adopt the proven preventive. Such a short sighted policy dictated by immediate commercial concern has been disastrous in the history of past epidemics in this country. (See Dr. Evans' story of the plague in California in THE SURVEY for November 1, 1925, p. 157, and Dr. Wilbur's discussion of health as a business asset on p. 678 of this issue.) Dispatches published in New York newspapers during January indicated that a similar attempt was being made in Tampa and formed the basis of editorial comment in THE SURVEY of January 15. We are glad to learn from Dr. E. C. Levy, health officer of Tampa, that this impression was misleading, and that no effective effort has been made to oppose the campaign of publicity and vaccination which has checked the spread of the disease in that city and in the state. Though Florida has no law to make vaccination compulsory, more than 55,000 persons have been persuaded to accept it in Tampa since January 1; and in the state at large more than 150,000 vaccine points were used in January. Elsewhere in this issue the state health officer of Florida tells of some of the details of this and other efforts to keep a booming state well.

By the last week in January the number of cases of smallpox in Florida reported by the federal health service (84 for the week) was exceeded by the 121 in Indiana, 103 in Oregon, 86 in California and almost equalled by Washington's 83; the New England states, with compulsory vaccination laws, reported no cases. The shoe is on the other foot, the hotel men are said to be anxious to have the fullest publicity given to the facts, to dispel any impression that the truth is being concealed. There could hardly be a nicer example of the importance, from both the scientific and commercial point of view, of grasping a threatened epidemic as though it were a nettle.

DURING the last week in February no less than fourteen educational conferences were held in Washington, D. C., bringing together teachers and school administrators from all parts of the country. The annual conference of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association was the magnet which attracted the long list of affiliated meetings, including the National Council of Education, Department of Rural Education, Educational Research Association, Council of Kindergarten Supervisors and Training Teachers, National Society for the Study of Education and the National Conference on Educational Method. Conspicuous in the programs of all these gatherings is the fact that the emphasis, instead of being placed on the accomplishments of the past year, was on the needs and opportunities of the future. Work already accomplished was described in detail only when it seemed to be in the line of experimentation which could be generally applied, such as the elementary school plan being evolved at Lincoln School, Columbia University; the Dalton Plan as adapted to the South Philadelphia Highschool for Girls; the Detroit house plan.

The conference programs were noticeably less self-satisfied than those of similar meetings several years ago. They manifested a healthy tendency to criticise, to modify, to question. In many of the meetings, the need of serving the in-

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dividual child, even at the expense of "the general plan" was suggested.

The resolution which aroused the most interest and that which was passed with most enthusiasm was the one condemning anti-evolution laws as measuures which unduly hamper both teachers and students "in that pursuit of truth which should be one of the main functions of education."

A great many delegates to the various meetings attended the hearings on the proposed bill creating a federal Department of Education. The measure has the endorsement of the N.E.A., but educators speaking at the hearings were by no means unanimous in commenting on the plan. To many it seemed to offer dangerous possibilities of "increased standardization" and "stifling bureaucracy" in public education.

Another sign that a helpful spirit of restlessness is troubling the public school educator is the number of studies and surveys, directed toward changes in teaching method and subject, which are going forward. One of the most comprehensive of these is the curricular study, preliminary reports of which were presented at the recent Department of Superintendence meeting, in which two hundred cities, including Chicago, New York, Buffalo, Detroit, Pittsburgh, Cleveland, St. Louis, Omaha, Denver and Los Angeles are taking part. "The main purpose of the study," it was stated in a preliminary report, "is to determine what courses and what subjects within the courses have intrinsic value and to separate those that represent hobbies or propaganda long accepted at an unreal value." The elaborate committee recently appointed by Herbert Hoover, secretary of commerce, "to study every phase of school administration with a view to presenting a suggested program for economics which would reduce the costs to the taxpayer without hampering efficiency" will doubtless do valuable work in helping to eliminate waste in school administration. But from the point of view of an educational system which is genuinely "efficient" in that it gives to every child the possibility for the fullest and freest possible individual development, nothing is so promising as an indication of the growth of a questioning, experimental attitude on the part of public school teachers and administrators themselves.

WHEN the Tammany Democrats and the conservative Republicans and the Socialists in the New York Congressional delegation vie with each other in supporting a mothers' pension bill for the District of Columbia the friends of social legislation may well wonder whether the millenium has arrived. Those of a cynical turn of mind may possibly suspect that the temporary liason has a significance not wholly explained by a common passion to aid dependent children. This suspicion is strengthened as evidence accumulates that the particular mothers' pension bill so widely favored is apparently not the one which a large majority of the citizens of the District seem to want.

The story begins with the appointment by the Commissioners of the District of a Commission on Public Welfare Legislation which has been at work since January, 1924, with some assistance from the Russell Sage Foundation. After several months of study interspersed with public hearings and discussion in the newspapers, the Commission drafted a bill to create a Board of Public Welfare in the District. This bill abolished the Board of Charities, the Board of Children's Guardians and the Board of Trustees of the National Training School for Girls (really a District institution) and transferred their functions to the Public Welfare Board. The object was, of course, to centralize and coordinate in one unpaid board of citizens the administration of all publicly supported welfare work. The principle of unified control was widely endorsed locally and the President in his message to the Sixty-eighth Congress had specifically urged such consolidation for the District. Slightly amended, the bill passed the House. It failed to come to a vote in the Senate and was thus lost so far as the sixty-eighth session was concerned.

Meanwhile the Commission turned its attention to mothers' pensions, there being no law on the subject, although, since 1914, seventeen bills had been introduced. After the usual preliminary public hearing and public discussion a bill was prepared embodying the best which could be gleaned from experience elsewhere and with advice and assistance from the Federal Children's Bureau. The bill provided that the administration of the allowances should be placed temporarily in the Board of Charities and ultimately in the Board of Public Welfare when that board should be created.

Nothing further happened with reference to these two bills until after the opening of the present congressional session when they were both promptly introduced and seemed likely to pass without serious opposition.

Early in January, 1926, Sophie Irene Loeb, of New York, arrived in Washington with a so-called model mothers' pension bill drafted by the Child Welfare Committee of America, of which she is president. Her measure was sponsored by Senator Wadsworth and Congressman Mills of New York. After one or two conferences with District people, Miss Loeb agreed to accept the Public Welfare Commission Bill if the administration was left in the hands of an independent board to be created by the measure. This was in direct conflict with the Commission's desire to consolidate public welfare administration. Nevertheless the impression was created upon the local people that they must accept this amendment or no bill could be passed. Reluctantly and under protest the point was yielded and the bill was passed in the House on February 8 after a debate in which Miss Loeb and her bill were lauded by the Republicans, Democrats and a Socialist from New York, with a few Congressmen vainly trying to make the point that this was a District measure to be paid for out of District revenues and administered there, and that Congress ought not to ride rough-shod over the wishes of a community which knew what it wanted but had neither voice nor vote to get it. The unique aspect of the conflict is that Governor Smith had interested himself in behalf of Miss Loeb's bill and his influence was a deciding factor. Could the governor, a staunch believer in home rule, have been correctly informed about the situation?

Imagine what would happen if the citizens of Washington came to Albany and insisted upon the passing of their kind of a mother's pension bill for New York!

Meanwhile the Senate committee has approved the Board of Public Welfare and the mothers' pension bills drafted by the local commission. Obviously, Washington is the national capital; every citizen everywhere is concerned in its standards; yet the principle behind local self-government runs even in a voteless and politically helpless community.

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EDUCATION

Those Problem Parents

ROOM 72 at Ridge High School is the office of the Student Welfare Committee. The pupils who go to Room 72 are those who need special advice on some problem of school adjustment. Ridge is one of the city's largest academic high schools, grown up on the site of a once famous and aristocratic private school of the same name. Many parents who cannot afford to send their sons and daughters to private schools like to send them to Ridge. It has retained something of the prestige of the old Ridge School. Room 72 is presided over by Miss Riley, a psychologist whose time and energy are devoted to the unravelling of adjustment difficulties. Out of a school population of about 4,000 she has at least 250 problems a year. It is Miss Riley who gives the intelligence tests to the hordes of incoming freshmen in September and January. It is Miss Riley who supervises the computation of the intelligence quotients from these tests and who is the first to know that Rosie, I.Q. 79, and Henry, I.Q. 87, passed along comfortably from the elementary school, are likely to be misfits in an academic high school. She expects Rosie and Henry to bob up among her "problems." Her expectations are usually fulfilled.

To finish an academic high school course successfully it has been found at Ridge that a child should have an I.Q. not lower than 109.

"Some who test lower do get through," Miss Riley admits, "Particularly in cases of serious ill health or emotional blocking an I.Q. by itself cannot be taken as a true index of a child's capacity. There are instances where an I.Q. has varied ten or more points in successive examinations, completely changing the pupil's classification. In intelligence testing, as in all other arbitrary measurements, common sense has to be employed in using the measuring stick. So employed, an I.Q. is a fairly reliable index of a child's ability to do advanced academic work. It is our experience here that pupils who test appreciably lower than what we have come to regard as the minimum for completing an academic high school course are able to do the work successfully only under very special conditions. They practically always take longer than the prescribed four years to cover the course. If defeat doesn't bother a student, if he can fail two subjects out of four and repeat and not worry over it, he may complete the course even if his test places him pretty far down in the 90's. But it takes a certain rather unusual type of mind, vigorous health, grit, and a thick skin to do it."

As a rule, Miss Riley finds that pupils who have low I.Q's show a weakness in abstract thinking and generalizing which puts them under a constant strain in trying to "keep up." They are frightened or humiliated or discouraged by repeated failures. An academic course of study does not interest them. They "cut classes" and "play truant." They sulk or stop trying or grow impudent or hysterical or morbid. In short, they develop problems, which, on their own initiative, or at the suggestion of grade advisors or class teachers they take to Room 72.

"Such boys and girls are simply misfits at Ridge," Miss Riley explains, "They have all sorts of possibilities for acquiring an education and leading useful and interesting lives. But they don't belong in this particular environment. They are fish out of water. They *can't* adjust."

Sometimes the child has a special ability, such as music or art, which does not always correlate with "intelligence." That is what Miss Riley looks for first. If there is no such special ability, then she tries to find some manual skill sufficiently attractive to the child to challenge his interest. It may be cooking or acetylene welding or horticulture or nursing or telegraphy. In the majority of instances, the child with a low I.Q. does not belong in an academic high school but in a school equipped to offer him an education which is directed toward acquiring or developing a manual skill.

Miss Riley is in touch with all the schools in the city offering vocational and trade training and she is able to smooth the way for entrance at irregular times or with irregular credits for pupils who find themselves unhappily placed at Ridge. Also, through Ridge's employment advisor, she is in touch with numerous jobs, some in connection with part time schools or night schools, some just jobs, for those who need to be completely outside a school atmosphere for a time. Miss Riley, whose special talent lies in securing the cooperation of the boys and girls themselves in straightening out their difficulties, can almost always discover or devise a way out for the misfits who come to Room 72 with their dilemmas.

BUT the problem of Rosie's adjustment is not solely a matter between Rosie and Miss Riley. It is a three cornered affair, Miss Riley, Rosie and Rosie's parents. Miss Riley states it thus:

"If Mrs. Cohen takes Rosie to the dentist and the dentist says 'This tooth should be filled,' Mrs. Cohen says, 'Go ahead and fill it.' But when Mrs. Cohen goes to an educator to talk over Rosie's adjustment difficulties, Mrs. Cohen feels that she knows as much or more about Rosie and her educational needs as the expert she is consulting. The subjective judgments of both parent and teacher are largely eliminated by modern intelligence tests, properly used. The technique is as definite as the doctor's or dentist's, but it is not yet recognized."

Miss Riley agrees with most modern authorities that to complete a standard, academic college course a boy or girl should have an I.Q. not lower than 115. At certain institutions with unusually high scholarship standards, college authorities have found reason to consider an I.Q. between 130 and 140 necessary for satisfactory work. Miss Riley

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tries to convey this information to the mother of Rosie, I.Q. 79 or Henry, I.Q. 87. And usually Mrs. Cohen or Mrs. Brown replies,

"But I *have* a son in college. There's no reason why *this* boy can't do it." Or—

"My neighbor's daughter Ruth is in college this year and Ruth and Rosie have played together all their lives." Or—

"Are you trying to tell me my child is feeble minded?"

Miss Riley tries again, patiently but very directly:

"You are protesting because you think I am casting aspersions on your child's mental ability. Now look at it this way: if your doctor said your child had heart trouble, you wouldn't try to get Henry on the track team, would you?"

"No."

"Well, you are asking him to leap mental hurdles he simply *can't* take."

"But his father graduated from Amherst, and he's been on the waiting list since he was a year old."

FREDERICK has such a problem. The first item in Frederick's folder in the file in Room 72 is a "corridor card"—"Pass to Miss Riley, F. Dutton, truant." Frederick, I.Q. 101, takes every opportunity to escape from school. He cuts classes. He disappears for whole days at a time. He entered high school at 15 years and 10 months, appreciably older than the average high school freshman. He "hates" languages, history, literature, geometry, class rooms and libraries. His marks run Latin 30; mathematics, 60; history, 40. He has good ability to visualize and a good rote memory, but he has a 12-year-old vocabulary and he cannot generalize or deal with abstractions.

Miss Riley, after making the acquaintance of Frederick, sent for Frederick's father. Mr. Dutton is a self-made man in the best American tradition. He is practically uneducated, stern, hard, ruthless and financially fairly successful. He does not believe that money and lack of exceptional mental ability can happen together. Frederick is to go to Yale and be a lawyer. No other college will do and no other career. Miss Riley explained to Mr. Dutton about Frederick's I.Q. of 101, which is distinctly lower than the usual level of a college of Yale's standing, his inability to grasp abstractions, his truancy and increasingly reckless attitude. Mr. Dutton offered to "whale it out of him." Miss Riley had discovered what Frederick wanted to do. Frederick has a genuine interest in business. As far as Miss Riley could learn, the only thing he ever reads voluntarily is the financial section of the metropolitan press. He talks surprisingly well on trade tendencies, business methods and kindred topics. Frederick said he wanted a job, "not a trade—something around a bank. And I could study banking and stuff like that at night school," he added eagerly, "They have some keen courses."

Miss Riley offered this suggestion to Mr. Dutton. She knew of such a job. Frederick could have it and it offered further opportunities if Frederick made good.

"But," Mr. Dutton stormed, "that's precisely what I won't allow—it's what the boy himself wants." His hard fist banged Miss Riley's desk. "That boy's going to Yale and he's going to law school and he's going to be a lawyer. Do you get that?"

Frederick stayed on at Ridge for another year, failing in history, English, Latin and mathematics. Ridge offers only academic courses. His pleasant face grew bitter and sullen. His truancy increased. At the end of the year, because of his truancy and his scholarship failure, he was "dropped." Miss Riley had one more interview with Mr. Dutton. She included in the interview Frederick's grade advisor and the director of Ridge's employment office. But Mr. Dutton was "firm."

"I'll have a tutor for him this summer. I'll put him in a good private school in the fall. That boy's going to Yale."

A little later Frederick came to Room 72 to say goodbye to Miss Riley. Miss Riley told him his father's decision.

"Yale?" Frederick sneered, "The old man says I'm going to Yale? I'm going to hell!"

THEN there is Marian, I.Q. 88. At 16, Marian's mental age is 13.4. She started the straight academic (college preparatory) course, but failed from one to four subjects a term for seven terms. Then she was shifted to the "easy course." Marian was not expected to go to college or to work. She was to occupy herself till she was old enough to marry by going to school and then by "staying at home." In her mother's opinion, "She'll make a better marriage if she graduates from a good high school, like Ridge."

When she sent Marian to Room 72, her grade advisor wrote,

"Wouldn't it be better to have a frank understanding at once with Mrs. Payne and if she wishes Marian to stay here and doesn't care about credit we can pick 'culture courses' with the idea of making Marian as happy as possible and giving her some confidence in herself?"

Miss Riley found Marian a tall, pale, gentle, shy girl, a cardiac case, very much underweight, and suffering from insomnia. She could not talk about her school work without crying. She worked hard over her lessons but "I just can't seem to get them like the others do." Miss Riley discovered presently that Marian was "just wild about housework." The girl's listlessness and shyness dropped away when she talked about cooking, sewing, household decoration. She became eager and animated. But Mrs. Payne wanted Marian to graduate from high school.

"A man thinks so much more of a girl when she has a high school diploma—especially from a refined school like Ridge."

Miss Riley took Mrs. Payne and Marian to a famous domestic science institute. Mrs. Payne could easily afford the institute's moderate fees. The school had a national reputation and an air of great refinement. A course that included cooking, dietetics, child hygiene, home nursing, sewing and household art appealed to Marian and would fit her for intelligent homemaking and motherhood. But Mrs. Payne did not like the school.

"They say most of these girls are going to teach or earn their own living some way. Marian isn't in that class at all. I want her to have a diploma from a real highbrow school like Ridge."

In spite of Marian's tears and pleadings, in spite of Miss Riley's careful, patient explanation, Marian stayed at Ridge for two more terms, failing miserably in two of four subjects both terms. Then she had a complete nervous breakdown. She is spending this winter in a sanitarium for "mental cases."

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The mother of Jean was professionally, not socially ambitious. Mrs. McRae had been a teacher before her marriage. Unfortunately she married before the days of careers for married women, and gave up teaching, which she loved, for domesticity, which she hated. She had four daughters, and she determined that through her girls she would have her frustrated career. They should all be teachers. The two older girls went into business. The next one became a laboratory technician. There was only Jean. Jean *must* be a teacher. Jean's I.Q. is 73. Jean's grade advisor calls her "a charming little girl." Miss Riley found her pretty and sensible and well bred.

"She seemed so terribly worth helping," Miss Riley says, "She has no capacity for academic work, but she obviously has other ability."

Jean failed in her courses at Ridge High School and kept failing. Her mother constantly accused the girl of laziness. Jean worked hard, but as her I.Q. of 73 clearly indicated, she was not equipped to cope successfully with an academic high school course. Miss Riley tried to explain the situation to Mrs. McRae.

"You know nothing about it," Mrs. McRae stormed, "I can decide what my children are fit for. I've made up my mind that Jean is to be a teacher and a teacher she shall be."

Jean stood it for five terms. Then the humiliation and discouragement of repeated failure were more than she could bear. She had entered high school late. She was seventeen and a "conditioned sophomore" in rating. Her mother said as long as Jean lived under *her* roof Jean would go to Ridge High School. Jean left her mother's roof. With Miss Riley's help she secured a clerical position with a life insurance company. That was two years ago.

Jean is doing very well. She has had several promotions. Her mother has "disowned" her. Jean has made no effort to see her mother. She says she has no desire to see her. The break is complete.

DAVID'S stepfather is a Harvard graduate and a capable journalist. David's mother did not finish the grades. Mrs. Rosen was determined that David should "have a grand education like my husband." David's I.Q. is 82. David does not fit into an academic environment. He has big, clever hands, a vast impatience with abstractions, a patient, capable way of dealing with concrete problems and a real interest in mechanical processes. David's own father was a carpenter. David hated Ridge High School. He wanted to "learn something that gets you somewhere." His mother had boasted to her friends and relatives of the college career David was to have. She felt she would be socially disgraced if David did not go to Harvard.

Miss Riley talked with Mr. Rosen. Mr. Rosen quite understood the situation. It was clear to him that David's interests and aptitudes did not lie along lines of Latin and Chaucer. But David's mother was insistent and David was kept at Ridge for seven terms, during which he never passed in more than one out of four subjects. Miss Riley suggested a cooperative high school, where boys both study and work, taking a three-year course which leads to a diploma, practical knowledge and a job.

At Ridge High School, a pupil is given a year to make adjustments and then is expected to progress at the rate of at least 20 credits a term (the normal lead is 24½). Any student who is sixteen years old and who fails to make the required progress for three successive terms without extenuating circumstances, is declared "overtime" and automatically dropped with one term's warning. When David, at seventeen, received this warning, his mother finally realized that it was hopeless to expect David to graduate from an academic high school. She consented to his transfer to the cooperative school. David is learning lithographing.

He is growing less sullen and suspicious and quarrelsome. There are days when his dark, heavy face looks almost serene. There is reason to hope that, in spite of his mother, David will yet have a useful, normally happy life.

ELMA, I.Q. 91, is 17 and a truant. Her father is an elementary school teacher. He insists that Elma is a lady and must have "a lady's education" which, he maintains, means Ridge High School and Vassar College. Elma is tall and well developed for her age. She is a pleasant, friendly creature. After seven terms she is not yet a sophomore. Her school work does not interest her. Most of what she tries to learn is vague and meaningless to her, because it involves abstract reasoning which is beyond her ability. Elma is steady nerved and vigorous and cheerful and she likes people. She wants to be a trained nurse.

There is an opening available for her in an excellent training school. There is every reason to believe that she would succeed in the work she prefers. Her father feels that this ambition is "beneath" her. Elma cannot compete intellectually with the girls of her age at Ridge. She is thrown with much younger girls, over whom she has a good deal of influence. She plays truant constantly.

"We've done our best for Elma, I'm afraid," Miss Riley says, "Her father will not listen to us. He insists that if we drop her, as we have warned him we must at the end of this term, he will enter her at the Girls' high school and 'push' her with tutors. He is determined that she must finish high school and go on to Vassar, though of course she cannot pass the entrance examinations. But then," Miss Riley adds philosophically, "Elma doesn't worry—she isn't a proud or particularly sensitive girl. She won't have a nervous breakdown or get morbid. Really I suppose it is only a question of tiding her over the next two years in safety. She'll inevitably marry young. But—the last year and a half have been bad for Elma and Elma has been very bad for the younger girls, and she could be so happy and so useful if she were permitted to live her own life!"

MISS RILEY ran her finger over the thick ranks of the folders in File D. Raymond, Mary, Gilbert, Jessie, Peter, Katie—

"This is the fullest file always," Miss Riley says, "I classify first by types of problem. In this file are the records of every pupil that comes to me with a perfectly definite difficulty and with whom I have worked out a reasonable adjustment to which the parent won't agree.

"Sometimes," she added, a little hopelessly, "sometimes I think we are up against problem parents rather than problem pupils."

BEULAH AMIDON RATLIFF

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What Would You Do Next?

MISS DUNNIWELL had been consolidated. She didn't like it, and she was doing her best to find a way out. For five years she had been a sort of free-lance teacher in an isolated one-room school in South Pennland. She had been teaching young ideas how to shoot—in all directions. That was perfectly safe because there were few individuals and fewer institutions that might object to ideas in any of those directions. She had been profusely happy in this freedom, and she had brought an extraordinary sense of life—to young and old—into the community. She had hoped the situation might go on indefinitely.

But her school district was in the path of progress; and presently it was consolidated with another—herself along with it—and she found herself established as an assistant to a regular teacher whose specialties were mathematics and chewing tobacco. One of the questions long in dispute in that district had been as to whether the method or the aim of this teacher were the more accurate. It was not inspiring.

But progress is progress, as the logic books prove. So, for a year, Miss Dunniwell took care of the duties of a regular second in command. Progress means getting down to business: no more free-lancing; no more shooting of ideas. The day's schedule, instead. Now, a two-room school is bigger than a one-room school, and it must, therefore, be a better school. It is twice as big; therefore, it is twice as good. Moreover, the principal of a two-room school knows more about education, and teaching, than does a free-lance teacher in a one-room school. It stands to reason. How else explain progress?

But Miss Dunniwell was smothered by the new arrangement. She admits that one should never be smothered by progress. But she couldn't help it. She felt she just had to get out of the "deadly atmosphere." That wasn't easy. She didn't want to give up teaching. She wanted to get back her former freedom. She lay awake nights and prowled around daytimes looking for a way out. Finally she found a clue, and lost no time acting upon it.

She went to see the Superintendent of Public Schools of the state. He had heard of her, and he was—within bounds—glad to see her. "What can we do for you?" he asked her, with a sort of cosmic inclusiveness which discounted, somewhat, the face value of his words.

Miss Dunniwell hesitated. She had never met so high an educational official before, and she was not quite sure what her method of approach to her subject should be. But she decided that the best plan would be to put all her cards on the table. So she said:

"Well, you see, I've been consolidated into a job I don't much like. After five years of freedom at M— I've been sort of catapulted into the position of assistant at Y—, and I can't say, after a year, that I'm wild about the job. So I thought maybe you could help me find something more to my liking. Isn't there a vacancy in your supervisory forces somewhere in the state? I think I'd like to get into supervisory work. I'd take most anything of that sort."

It was now the superintendent's turn to hesitate.

"Let's talk this over a bit," he said. "You're just the sort of person, Miss Dunniwell, that I'd like to have in our supervisory staff, if school conditions were ideal. Unfortunately, they are not, and we have to be realistic.

"Now, for example, you're interested in the social conditions of the community and in the life of children outside the school. Oh, of course, so am I; so are all teachers: how could we be teachers if we neglected the conditions surrounding children out of school? But you, now, carry the thing too far. The school has its work to do. So has the home. Teachers must not neglect their own proper work in order to find out what is happening to children outside school hours. After all, you see, education must not invade the home, or undermine the home's sense of responsibility. I'm afraid you'd mix things up, if you went as a supervisor into our public schools and began to ask teachers what they knew about the ways children live. Teachers would resent it: it's not the school's business.

"Then, too, you're an idealist. Of course, I am, too; so are all teachers: what would education be if teachers were not idealists? But here again you get things mixed up. A school is, in some ways, like a grist mill. A miller, we'll say, wants to turn out the highest grade of flour. That's his ideal. What does he do about it? Does he just stand around and talk about it for days on end? Not at all. He builds a mill that will do the best work. Then he seeks out the best wheat. He selects his wheat carefully and runs it through the mill. It is bound to come out an ideal flour. That's what I call true idealism: set up the right kind of machinery—and then trust it!

"No, I don't believe we can use you. The school is the community's tool for educating its children. The school must do its own work faithfully; it must not undermine other institutions by taking over tasks that rightly belong to them. Live and let live. A supervisor ought not to be interested too much in things outside the school. She would neglect her proper work. Nor should she overdo this matter of being idealistic. What counts in education is the steady day by day work of the class room. Supervisors exist for one purpose only—to help hold the educational mill—if I may use the term—to its steady round of turning out its regular grist of scholars. A supervisor should not worry about the community; and she should not tinker with the machinery. She should help make the wheels go round, and she should always stand up for the mill whenever anyone who does not understand machinery criticises the schools.

"I don't believe that you could be that sort of a supervisor. But if you took the position on any other terms you would upset the regular order and you would not be happy. I think we'd better drop the whole matter. Of course, I hope you'll find something you can do somewhere. All the reports of your work show that you have a way with you. It's too bad your way is not our way, because our state does really need some live, intelligent, socially-minded, idealistic supervisors.

"But facts are facts. You can see the direction our schools are taking. It's not your direction. But on the whole it seems to me to be the direction of progress. It seems necessary to believe that the whole state knows more than any one individual; and the state is moving in this direction.

"Perhaps in some less progressive state—farther west, let's say—you will be able to find a position that you will like and that will just fit you. I feel sure that we have progressed beyond the stage where we can find room for the sort of thing you want to do."

Meanwhile, Miss Dunniwell would be glad to correspond with school officials—or other interested parties—of some community in which the sort of work she wants to do would be welcomed—for a year or two, perhaps, until progress comes her way again.

J. K. H.

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Housing: How Much for How Much?

People in cities need good houses. Agreed. But what is a good house, and what, being a good house, is also a possible house? Is Philadelphia's much-touted one-family house? Dr. Rubinow recounted its failure in The Survey for Dec. 15, 1925. Is New York's dumb-bell tenement, or the flimsy frame shack in Queens Borough? Testimony at the Housing Commission's hearing, reviewed in the same issue, answers that. Here Henry Wright shows graphically why the one-family house won't do in the city, and what kind of house you can produce if you apply rigid cost accounting and do some experimenting

THE "housing problem" is no longer a matter of academic interest. It is a very real difficulty, affecting everyone of us who struggles to maintain some semblance of home ideals amid the rapid changes of present-day conditions. Could we change the existing economic structure, could we but change the present grouping of society into great cities, some of the human aspects of home owning might again be pertinent to our problem. But as things stand, like it or not, we should put our trust only in a frank, cold hearted, study of the real facts which render home owning increasingly difficult and make it increasingly necessary to find substitutes for the old type single-family house.

In the so-called "own your home" movement and even in city planning circles there has been a conscious, though unadmitted, compromise with business, and frequently with bad business, with the idea that any sort of house was better than no house. Some housing workers have clung to the fallacy that even a poor one-family house was better than any kind of multi-family house.

I would be the last to discount the merits of good one-family houses or to overlook the deficiencies of multi-family houses as frequently built by unscrupulous speculative builders. It is time, however, that we should look facts in the face. Sentimental nonsense has too long kept our minds on an impossible ideal, and has diverted our attention from the real facts and the real changes which are taking place in urban conditions.

Transitional housing takes place in various distinct forms in different communities where tradition and custom act to compromise in one way or another the ideals of a bygone age. The transition from single to solid row houses, as in Philadelphia is less effective in both cost saving and land congestion than the transition, as in St. Louis, from the single house to the four-family flat or the six-family three-decker. Both are inevitable and, as Mr. Rubinow has shown in Philadelphia, at least one has become ineffective in meeting the present emergency.

How closely these changes are related to land increase is shown in a diagram on the following page which shows the slow but losing fight of the one-family house in St. Louis under increasing land costs from 1900 to 1920; the sudden rebound after the war, when land values in relation to building costs were temporarily halved by the cheaper dollar; and the rapid return to the 1916 normal as soon as land and public service absorbed the new cost standards. Here is revealed a direct and simple working of economic laws which artificial palliatives such as zoning are powerless to allay.

We may present the problem in a somewhat different way by comparing the cost to a family, either in rent or in corresponding interest on his investment on the part of the home-owner, of the land factor in various kinds of house units. A second diagram on the following page is taken from a study of five kinds of housing built under the direction of the United States Housing Corporation for the ammunition works during the war. The tenements which show such a marked advantage in this diagram are attractive free-standing three-story dwellings with five good-sized rooms each, only two families to each floor, with large lawns and expansive outlook, with ample playgrounds and with the conveniences of heating from a common source as well as janitor care and maintenance by an expert management.

If such gains in the economy of multi-family dwellings are to be observed under government supervision where the profit motive has been removed, how much more must they operate where land speculation and sale is the motivating force.

In an article recently published in the American Federationist I analysed the prevailing New York suburban house in the following terms:

By taking to pieces a (speculative) $5,300 house we will find that the entire expenditure for labor, material and building contracts, with fixtures such as gas stoves and electric outlets usually supplied, will average not more than $2,400 or less than 45 per cent of the selling price. The balance of the money goes for outside improvements—land, profits and money costs, the last two of which are by far the largest and most important factors. The reasons for these large money costs are simple.

1. Such building is of a highly speculative nature and the real estate "operator" who sells the land and who usually finances the small contractor requires a large profit.
2. The small amount of the actual building value reduces the amount of the first mortgage money obtainable. The rest of the money required must then be secured through the payment of large bonuses and high rates of interest, all of which enter into the final cost to the purchaser.
3. The neighborhood is likely to run down rapidly because of the incomplete public improvements which the purchasers cannot afford to finish for many years because of the large monthly payments made necessary to clean off the second mortgage loans.

If as here shown we already have reached a point at

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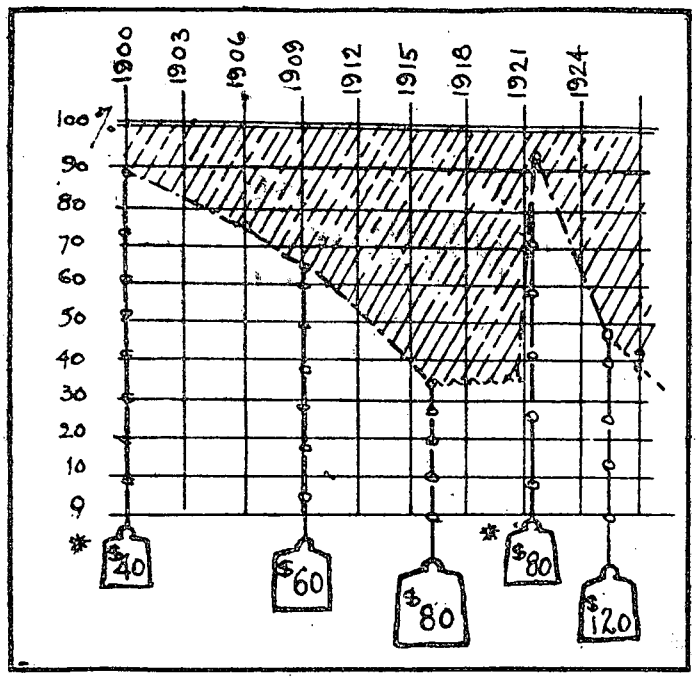


LAND COSTS AND ONE-FAMILY HOUSES

This diagram shows how changing land prices in St. Louis were reflected in the ratio of one-family to multi-family houses built. The shaded area shows the percentage of multi-family houses. The index price of land, per front foot, is shown on the hanging weights. The $80 rate of 1921 is roughly equivalent, in purchasing power of the dollar, to the $40 rate of 1900, which explains the sudden increase in the building of one-family houses in 1921

which the average purchaser obtains less than 50 per cent of his purchase value in actual building and equipment, we can see how much less he may expect as land prices continue to soar skyward. Such will doubtless be the sorry plight of our great Southern Boom State where cardboard and stage scenery are being resorted to in order to bring the combined house and land cost into remote relation to the purchasing power of the normal citizen.

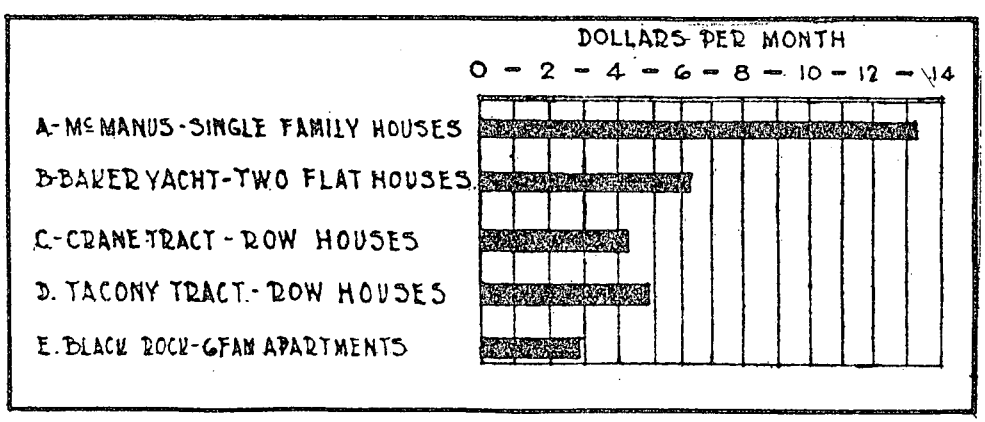
Under the very best conditions that we may hope for, it will take long years of experimentation to produce results commensurate with the present technical advances of such countries as England and Holland. Examples of important and well-applied technical experience in this field in America are unfortunately lacking. There have been praiseworthy experiments in special construction methods, but mere savings in construction costs can have but scant effect under the complicated conditions and in view of the gross wastes in other than construction items. Furthermore our foolish idea that houses of one kind or another should be segregated in different neighborhoods and the present tendency of each individual builder to repeat incessantly one particular—and often stupid—type of house over large areas, leaves us almost without opportunities for any reliable comparison of various types of dwellings.

In the building done by the City Housing Corporation at Sunnyside, New York, a variety of types of dwellings have been put up experimentally in close proximity and with some opportunity of observing their relative merits. On the basis of this experience a continuing analysis of costs is now being made, and plans are being constantly studied and restudied with an eye to the technique af satisfying in a practical way the normal housing needs of normal city families. Some early results of these investigations are sampled in the three following pages—not to call attention once more to the interesting though limited accomplishments of this housing organization, but rather to show the possibilities of such a method of investigation.

BOARDS of strategy composed of architects, engineers, community and financial experts should now be "sitting in" on the model houses of five or ten years hence. Types should be tried out, altered, adjusted until they can be wisely launched on an eager market. Some of the discoveries may easily be forecast—for instance, that well-planned and well-constructed shallow depth "row houses" in interesting groupings may be substituted to advantage for monotonous and shoddy individual frame houses with wasteful and cheerless rooms. If the builder is not tied down to the narrow lots which the real estate man so often offers for sale, but can use his land at discretion, a considerable variety of accommodations may thus be provided. The space of three narrow single-family houses, for example, can be used economically to house four families in four or five rooms each; or three families, two in six-room apartments and one in a six-room house; and these units can be combined to meet the needs of a particular group of occupants.

But no doubt in the end, after all our experimenting, houses such as we know now will fail to meet the test of real value, and undreamed-of dwellings, superior for modern family needs, may be evolved, quite different from either houses or apartments of the present day. The most discouraging factor in the situation is that whatever saving is to be effected by scientific exploration and application will be but temporary. For the history of house building clearly shows that such saving will be quickly capitalized by increased land charges and increased credit charges and so will be lost to the house owner. It is precisely this process of capitalization that is the real "housing problem."

HENRY WRIGHT


DOLLARS PER MONTH
0 - 2 - 4 - 6 - 8 - 10 - 12 - 14
A-McMANUS-SINGLE FAMILY HOUSES
B-BAKER YACHT-TWO FLAT HOUSES
C-CRANE TRACT-ROW HOUSES
D. TACONY TRACT-ROW HOUSES
E. BLACK ROCK-6FAM APARTMENTS

RENTALS AND UNITS OF HOUSING COMPARED

This chart shows the rental charges necessary to cover the land cost of five types of dwellings built for munition workers under the direction of the United States Housing Corporation. The figures are based on ten per cent of the cost of land and improvements as estimated by the Corporation

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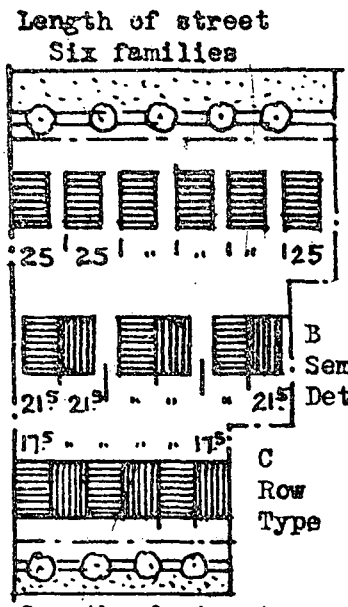
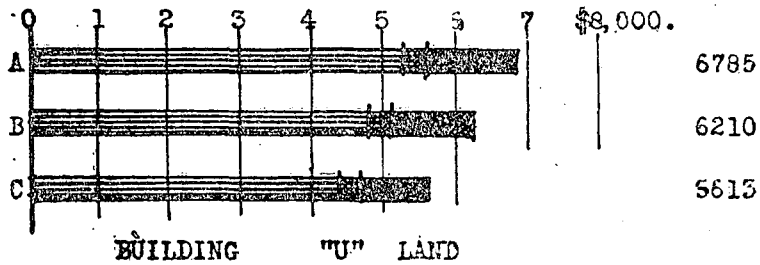
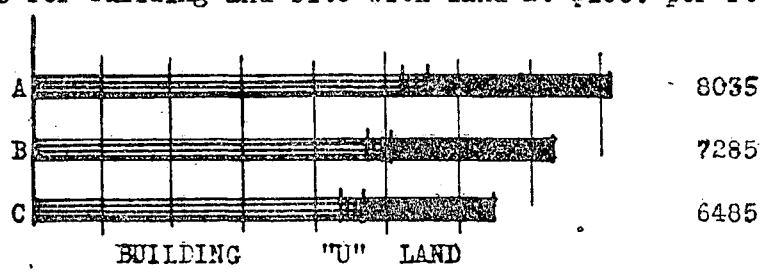
Five Ways to House Six Families

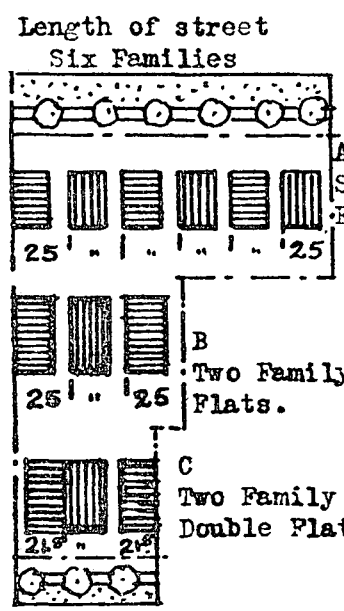


Costs for building & site with land at $50. per ft.



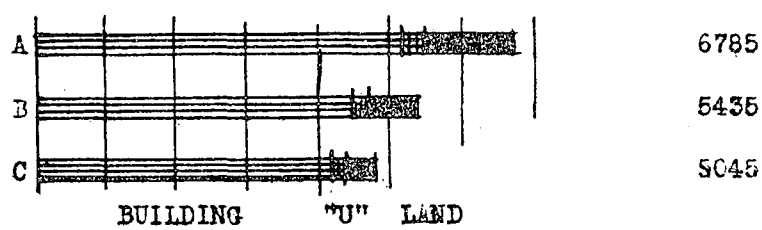
Costs for building and site with land at $100. per ft.



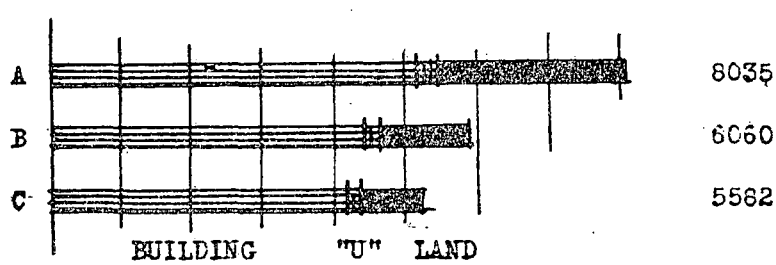


SINGLE & FLATTED DWELLINGS

Costs for building & site on land at $50. per ft.



Costs for building & site on land at $100. per ft.



This chart, based on careful cost analysis of building done in Queens Borough, New York, shows the relative cost per family housed of five different units of construction. For each of these units, ranging from the single-family detached house to the four-family house, the cost is given both for land costing $50 and land costing $100 per front foot, and is split into three parts—cost of the building, cost of utility connections (U), and cost of land including public improvements. The results answer some of Mr. Rubinow's questions in a recent Survey article as to the relative practicability of the Philadelphia one-family and the New York multi-family house

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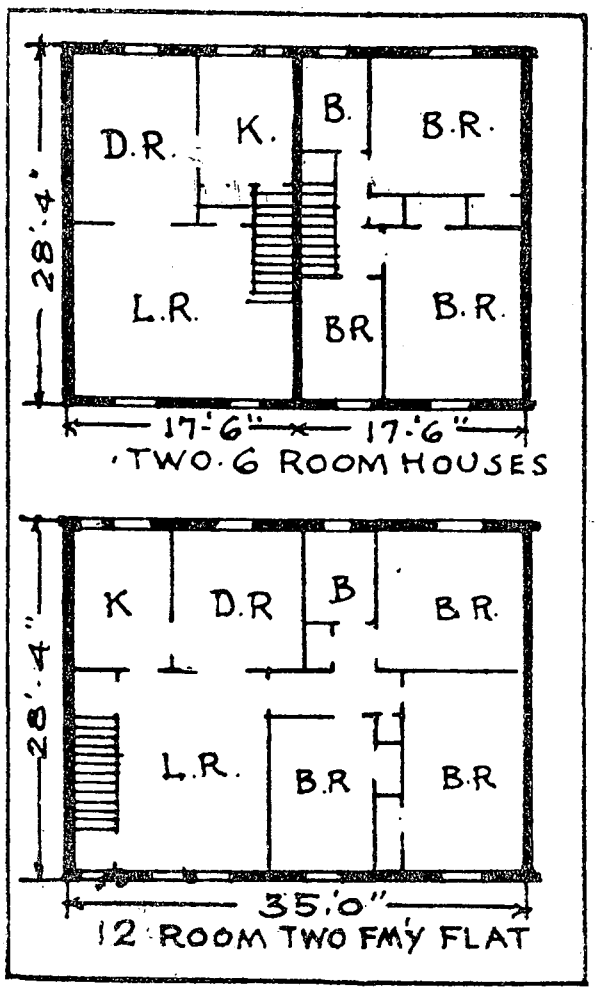
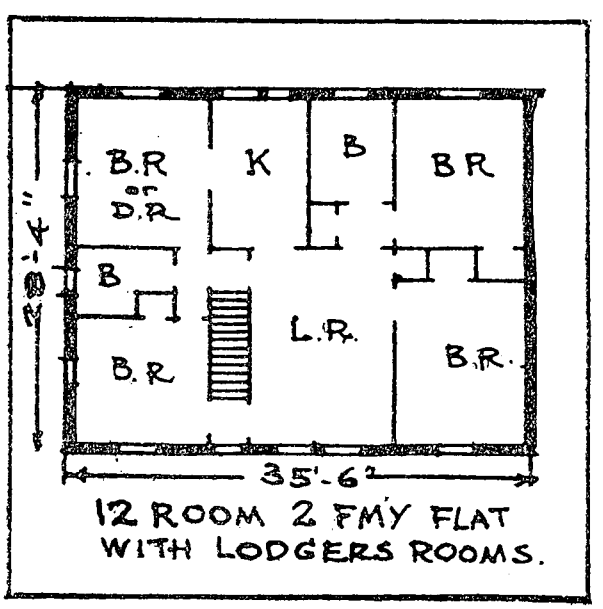
What You Can Do With Four Walls





TAKE 35 feet of street frontage and a building of standard depth—28 feet. The conventional way of treating this unit of space in a one-family house building scheme would be to put up two single-family six-room houses, each with 17½ foot frontage, three rooms to a floor, and 1,526 square feet of useable floor area (top plan, to the left).

The first modification that may be suggested is to divide the same cubic area between the two families horizontally instead of vertically, making the two single-family houses into one two-family house (middle plan, to the left). This eliminates the party wall, one set of stairs, and half the plumbing connections. On dwellings selling at about $8,500 apiece this results in a saving of approximately $600 for each family. Each apartment still has six rooms, but about 5 per cent has been added to the useable floor area which now totals 1,568 square feet for each family. Because of its simplicity of plan the flat is more readily cared for than the single-family house and the rooms may be better proportioned, with a third usable bed room in place of the very small bed room made necessary in the customary one-family house by its restricted width.

These advantages are well worth careful consideration although they have no bearing upon the relative cost of land and building, or even upon construction methods. They would be adopted primarily because some families may be better accommodated with a one-floor dwelling than one divided between two floors, especially where, as in this case, the dormitory portion of the house is entirely set off and segregated from the space given over to living, cooking and dining.

However, one of the outstanding deficiencies of the entire small house situation which is ignored in the "Own your Home" idea is the lack of elasticity of use in the usual types of single family dwellings. Such a home is almost certain, at one time or another, to be unnecessarily large or awkwardly restricted. By further applying analytical methods, it is found that this new and more economical two-family type of 12-room dwelling may be slightly rearranged so as to provide an elastic plan adaptable to varying uses.

On practically the same frontage, but with a rearrangement of stairs, the 12 rooms, with the addition of two bath rooms, may be used in a variety of different combinations of from two to eight rooms per family (bottom plan, to the left). The bedroom with bath in the lower left-hand corner of the plan, on each floor, is directly accessible from the entrance or stairs and, with or without the room to the rear, can be rented to a lodger without disturbing the rest of the apartment. (When this is not a corner or end house the first-floor lodger's room would have a lavatory only, and the second-floor bath would be skylighted). The provision of a small proportion of rentable single rooms and small suites in any neighborhood which undertakes to house young and old workers is an obvious advantage. The combination of rooms can be altered at will to fit changing circumstances, and the next page makes it clear how such a house serves the changing needs of a normal family.

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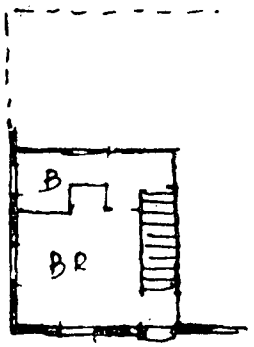
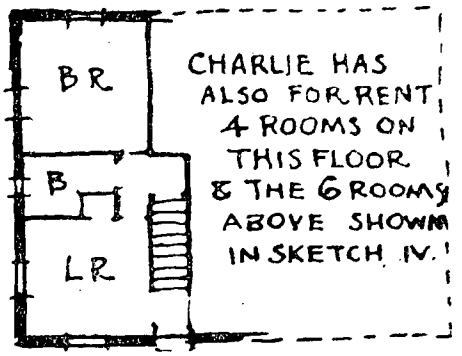
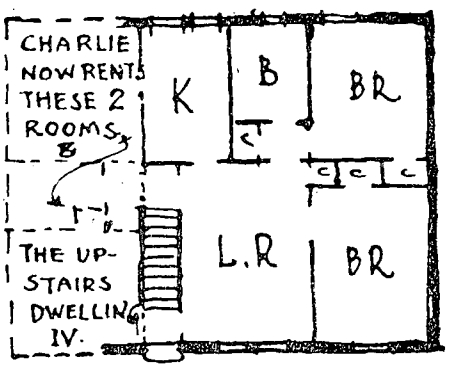
The Adjustable House



This is the story of Charlie Jones' house. Its moral, if it has one, is that the one-family house may be all right if the family neither increases nor decreases, but that a flexible plan which combines ownership with adjustable space has its own charm and advantages.
I—Charlie Jones comes to town as a carpenter apprentice and rents Smith's first floor room and bath (left)

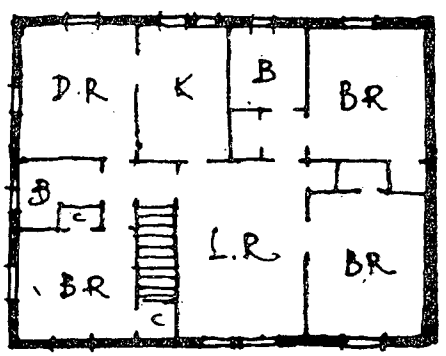


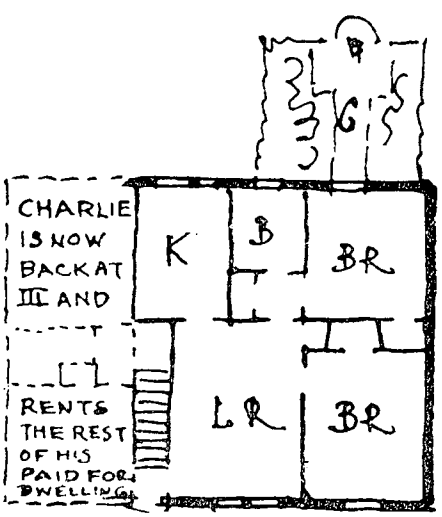
II—Charlie gets his union card and marries. With the help of a friend he makes his first payment on a house like Smith's (right). He lives in the first-floor two-room suite, where he has access to the basement workshop and heating plant



III—The rent from the rest of the two-story house helps Charlie meet his monthly payments and cut down the temporary loan which he applied to the first payment. His own apartment thus costs him very little. But as the children come he needs more space, and moves into the first-floor four-room suite (left) opening on the yard where the children play. He rents the two-room suite and second floor

IV—Jones waxes prosperous as a small contractor. His father comes to live with the family and the children, having grown to school age, play in the neighborhood park. The Joneses move upstairs and occupy the whole floor—six rooms with two baths (right). Meanwhile the 20-year payments are steadily melting away





V—Eventually the home is owned free and clear, and when the children marry the Joneses move back to the pleasant four-room suite on the first floor (left) with the garden outlook, and Charlie has time again to putter in the workshop. A new tenant—another 'prentice, perhaps—occupies the one-room-with-bath and tends the furnace as part of his rent. An income from eight rooms and three baths adds a tidy sum to Charlie's income

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HEALTH

Health: a Business Asset

WE human beings live in the midst of forces which are mighty and unvarying. Our success, in fact even our life, depends upon our proper and permanent relationship to these forces. These same forces control the lives of all plants and animals. With more knowledge of the world we have been able to use these forces in human advance.

Business is our organized method of dealing with the things about us and their relationships to the lives and well-being of people. With the development of modern transportation of goods and information, the business organization of each community has become the competitor in some degree with every other. In this matter of competition everything which increases the cost of goods or decreases the amount of productive labor, with the same number of mouths to feed and backs to clothe, results in the reduction of ability to compete.

Great cities have been built up because advantage has been taken of naturally favorable locations. Not a small part of these advantages has to do with the welfare and health of the human beings actually concerned. Our greatest cities and our greatest advances have come in those particular parts of the earth where the health and happiness of the human being could be most readily brought about. In the temperate zones the greatest progress has been made, and, for the most part, the great aggregations of men in large units have taken place. While in the temperate zones plant life within a single year cannot produce the same amount of food from sunshine that it can in the tropics, the conditions are more favorable for the human being. This is due not only to the heat and sunshine but because man is the prey of a great variety of parasites, some visible to the eye and some microscopic. These parasites are capable of invading the human body, and of living in the blood and tissues, causing what we call disease. Most of the major diseases of mankind are due to living animal or vegetable forms with a capacity to grow in us or on us, and with a life cycle which permits them to be transferred from one human being to the next. In the tropics the conditions are more favorable for many of these plant and animal forms. In the temperate zones the changes in seasons make the life of many of these parasites difficult.

If we study the history of the communities of our own country, we find that by the application of facts which have been learned regarding these organisms which invade the body we have been able practically to eliminate a number of them. In revolutionary days, and for many years thereafter, typhus or jail fever (so-called), yellow fever, and cholera were constant menaces to cities like Philadelphia. When we add to this list typhoid fever, smallpox and malaria, we can better understand the health problems of our earlier American cities. Control of these diseases, all due to parasite forms of life, had to wait upon the development of science. With the microscope and laboratory, the relationship of yellow fever and of malaria to the life of the mosquito became an everyday fact. Pure or properly treated water and the protection of food supplies practically eliminated cholera, and is eliminating typhoid fever. Universal vaccination secures a commuunity against anything more than sporadic cases of smallpox. One can visualize what modern science has meant to the business of the community when one thinks what yellow fever has meant at times to New Orleans, and what enormous losses the presence of epidemic diseases almost universally causes.

THERE is no argument as to the business asset which health is to a community. Assets are balanced off against something called liabilities. The amount of assets depends upon the amount of liabilities; and when we read the liability sheet of our industrial and agricultural communities we can see at once that one of the ways to increase our assets and our wealth is to reduce these liabilities. Our assets are largely the stored-up products of human labor and the capacity of human bodies to do additional labor. These depend upon human physical and mental capacity.

There are probably in this country about two million industrial accidents in a single year, with some thirty thousand deaths and three hundred thousand seriously injured. Some three millions of people are ill at any given time. A million and a half die every year. A million and a half are constantly suffering from diseases which can be prevented. A half million people have tuberculosis in our country at the present time; one half of these are a complete burden, as they are totally incapacitated; one hundred and fifty thousand of these die every year. About one half of the cases that require such assistance as is given by organized charity are disabled by sickness. It is probable that not less than a million and a half individuals carrying about the organism which causes what we call syphilis are within our borders at all times. It is quite clear, then, that aside from the accidents, many of which could be prevented by proper precautions, we have a long way to go before we conquer those parasites which now disturb our social and economic and personal lives. In this way we have already controlled a considerable number on this continent.

We have to remember that, no matter how much we may improve our environment and increase our education, the human body remains practically the same. It is just as good a place now to provide nutrition for the smallpox virus and the typhoid bacillus and the malarial germ as it was a thousand years ago. We have learned certain ways in which we can assist the body in holding off organisms; but it is a much simpler process to set up and organize our com-

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munity life so as to control them when possible through clean water, clean food and quarantine than it is to endeavor to increase the resistance of thousands of individuals.

ONE of our prime difficulties is the reaction of the individual to health programs. Many are prejudiced, opinionated and uninformed. Each person is apt to think of his own woes and his relief from them as pointing to some universal law. The natural ability of the body to throw off invading parasites and to recover from ailments has made patent medicine reputations and developed many isms. There is a great difference in individual constitutions and a great difference in self-control. The natural control of the healthy body is difficult with the diversity of available foods, the common lack of exercise, and the strains of modern life. The economic changes that have brought together great masses of people are all-controlling. They have made it possible for collective units to live comfortably and to build up wealth until they compete more satisfactorily than would otherwise be possible; but in doing so they have taken away from our boys and girls the normal childhood which the human race has known for thousands of years. Most of our children are born with bodies that can be kept absolutely sound only by exposure to the sun, good food and regular physical work throughout most of life. Through our schools and playgrounds and parks we make some effort to replace that which we have taken away from our young people.

There are too many of our citizens who grow up and pass through what someone has called the "merry-go-round," as indicated in the conversation between two friends: "So George finally died in abject poverty." "Yes, without a nickel. You see, he lost his health trying to get wealthy; then lost all his wealth trying to get healthy."

Every failure of the individual to keep his body sound and his mind acting well is a penalty in his life and a penalty to the community. A community can buy health if it wants to, but it *has* to pay the deficit on poor health whether it wants to or not. It has to make a distinction between the cost of the *prevention* of disease and the cost of the *results* of disease. There is no escape from the cost of the care of the indigent, the insane, the feeble-minded, the chronically sick, those afflicted with infectious diseases, the very old and the very young; but these costs can be cut materially by long, intelligent health programs.

Every one out of whom we secure productive labor goes on to the asset side. Every one temporarily or permanently removed from productive labor goes on to the liability side.

OUR information at the present time, due to the studies of research workers all over the world, is such that we can say that if any well-situated community of fifty thousand people would adopt and put into practical everyday use all that we now know of medicine and science, and all that we have been actually using in the control of many soldiers in war, there would be such a increase in human happiness and effectiveness, and such a decrease in sadness and inefficiency, that in ten years it would make that city the wonder of the world. If we simply cared for all of the children of the community as well as the good breeder does for his blooded stock we should remodel the next few generations.

We do not do this, because our pace is modified by the protestants and the unwilling, those with prejudices and without vision. Nevertheless they should not stop progress. There is always, and there will always be, a noisy minority which must be dragged forward as we go ahead in somewhat the same manner that a reluctant cat pointed north goes south when there is a strong pull on its tail. In fact, we can measure our progress to some extent by the degree of vociferousness of those who are reluctant to advance.

Purely as a business proposition, no modern community can afford to neglect the element of health if it views its life over a period of a half-century or a century. The communities that win in the great future competition will be those which have the brains, the health, both mental and physical, and the willingness to work with vision. Man is reaching entirely new possibilities with invention and science as his aids. His ultimate success will depend upon his ability to apply these to the every-day handling of his own body and his own mind. He can lose in the battle of business if he lets the human liabilities pile up too high.

A great city is a great monument to modern science. Its happiness and effectiveness would be largely destroyed if certain constantly used methods of handling water, milk and other foods, and certain rules of quarantine were neglected, or all of its hospitals closed. Health, happiness and good business go together. If I had to name the best business asset of a community I would say, "Universal good health."

RAY LYMAN WILBUR, M.D.

Pilgrims to Florida

MUCH has appeared in the public press in regard to conditions in Florida, and we wish to assure all those who are interested that the State Board of Health appreciates its responsibility and has increased its staff in all branches of the field service to meet the increased demand. Last spring when the Florida state legislature was in session not even the most optimistic booster could have visualized the approaching tremendous influx of tourists, but fortunately state board appropriation in this state is on the millage basis and there is a surplus over the legislative budget that can be utilized for "other regular operating expenses if approved by the governor." With the great increase in our population the need for increased health personnel was apparent and Governor Martin has approved the addition of three medical officers, two engineers, three nurses and three sanitary officers to the staff of the state department. The plans laid out a year ago have of necessity been very largely changed to meet conditions as they exist, for extreme flexibility and mobility are matters of great importance at present.

As an illustration of the growth of health activities, consider that there was May 1, 1925, a total of 95 certified automobile camps in the state. (No camp is allowed without a permit.) On November 1 there were 129 certified camps; and on December, 178 were in operation. Each new site had been inspected by one of our sanitary officers and the camp studied to see that it and the equipment complied with the state regulations.

Fifteen of the camps in operation December 1, had populations of more than 900 each. Among the larger camps are two at Miami and one at West Palm Beach of approxi-

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mately 2,000 each, and one will soon be completed at West Palm Beach to accommodate 4,000 persons. A great many of these camps are located within the limits of a city and hence are supervised by the city as well as the state. Up to the present year practically all the auto camps were located either on the east or the west coast, but today they are one of our big problems all over the state. We visit the camps not only to investigate their observance of sanitary rules; through the Bureau of Child Welfare and Public Health Nursing we aim to discover the needs in maternal and infant hygiene as well. We are fortunate in having the hearty cooperation of the local health officers and sanitary officers in all parts of the state, who realize the immensity and importance of the problem.

An auto camp is not always only a tent city, although some are. There are many people who spend the entire season in one camp and a few of the camps are virtually miniature towns.

West Palm Beach solved her problem in part at least by a bond issue of $400,000. Houses have been built in their auto camp which are rented furnished, including linen and tableware for four people. There are different grades of houses at different rentals; and there is also a place where those who carry their own tents can rent camping space. Within the camp there is a store, restaurant, sub-postoffice and independent water, sewerage and fire protection systems.

At Miami there is an ordinance which declares that two or more tents constitute an auto camp. There are two motorcycle inspectors who visit each camp daily and there is also a city nurse whose special duty it is to keep watch over the health of the camp population. Toilet facilities and shower baths are provided at the rate of one for each sex for each five tents, and at no point is a tent more than one hundred feet from toilet and bath. Many of the auto camps in other cities are in reality bungalow sections supplied with the same conveniences as the rest of the city, including water, sewerage, lights, garbage collection and police protection.

Each month a list of the certified camps is issued and sent to all camps, chambers of commerce and other interested persons so that potential campers may know where to go. Through the cooperation of the Federated Women's Clubs of the State, it is possible at each camp to find the name and address of the mayor of the city in or near which the camp is located, the health officer if there be one in city or county; the state medical officer of that district; the public health nurse of state, county or city; the state sanitary officer, local physicians, schools and churches as well as the active head of the Women's Club in that locality.

The enormous increase in population that Florida has been called on to care for this year is possible only because we have a climate that allows the people to live out of doors practically all of the time and a soil that dries out quickly after a rain, a combination which can hardly be duplicated in any other state. It is doubtful if any other state could have met the demands of such rapid growth.

In spite of the fact that there was an increased prevalence of typhoid in practically all states the past summer and autumn, we have been very fortunate in not having shared in it. In diphtheria we showed a decrease of 25 per cent in deaths in the period July-October inclusive, as compared with 1924, in spite of the great gain in population. It is quite possible that our good fortune in respect to these two diseases is due in a great measure to the fact that we have stressed immunization for several years. The State Board of Health not only preaches immunization but furnishes typhoid vaccine, vaccine virus and toxin antitoxin for the use of all and we urge the use of the biologics that we may do our part toward securing an immune population, as is also done in most of the states. Of course other biologics are furnished both for prophylactic and therapeutic use, and under present conditions our stock of all is unusually full—this offer holds not only for our own citizens, but also for all those who are in the state, whether their stay is long or short. We feel that this is a good business proposition which saves the state of Florida money as well as lives.

The large number of persons who have come to Florida has made new arrangements for the schools imperative for two reasons—health and education. At a recent conference of health and school authorities in Jacksonville some pertinent facts were brought out. One school had enrolled during one month ninety children from one camp; and the longest stay of any of these children was twenty-one days, while the average was but five days. It is quite probable that in other parts of the state the turnover would not be as great but here is a problem with many aspects—the probability of the introduction of disease into the school by a changing personnel, who occupy seats that are needed for regular attendants and cause a loss of time and effort on the part of the teacher. The solution will probably be the establishment of a school in the camp in charge of a picked teacher or teachers; in this way the regular schools can carry on their work without the confusion incident to a changing group of students. This also will safeguard the schools from the introduction of infection, should any occur in the camps, and would also be more convenient for the pupils.

The great influx of newcomers has done much to unify the problems of the people of the state and all are working not only for their own community but for the entire state with the feeling that what helps one part helps the whole.

B. L. Arms, M.D.

Nurse, Hospital and Community

A NURSE should be skillful, yes, but in addition to skill, a nurse needs education—a well rounded orientation in life and a deep understanding of the implications of the skills that she is using and of the medical problems in the community. And that involves education of a broader sort than is possible by the old methods. I shall discuss the terms "hospital" and "community" and the relations between the two as a basis for some suggestions relative to the education of nurses.

What is a hospital? Suppose we ask some of the doctors. Their attitude toward the hospital would probably be something like this: Hospitals are places where we take our cases that we can't handle in any other way. Or, hospitals are places that offer us opportunities for study or research when the private facilities are lacking. Or, hospitals are places where we can build up our prestige in our local communities. All of these things might be worthy motives if properly integrated with other values and motives,

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but too often doctors define hospitals solely in one or another of these ways.

How may a nurse define a hospital? Some frankly say, "Well, a hospital is a nice place in which to work until you can find a husband." If she failed in finding a husband, she might say that a hospital is a nice place in which to live throughout the remainder of one's life without too much family interference.

Not all doctors and nurses think of hospitals as I have indicated. But there are people in hospitals who so define the institution. They are the people who have developed narrow, professional attitudes, who see the hospital as a source of income or a means of satisfying some particular interest or set of wishes, and they use the hospital for themselves.

How would such persons define the community?

Such a nurse may regard the community as a nice place to get away from, and the hospital as the best means to that end. For such a doctor, the community provides patients, the source of his income. For such a hospital administrator it may be the place from which you get the money to finance your work. There are too many nurses and doctors and hospital administrators whose thinking about the community stops here. Once they have the money to run them for the year, they don't think about the community any more, except as the patients come from the community. The result is that too often you find in a hospital a little group of people encysted. True, they visit their families occasionally, and they go out to make their purchases and so on, but within the walls of this institution you have a group of people socially sealed in their own attitudes and ideas.

Usually this condition is rationalized and called professionalism. Professionalism is desirable but there are such things as diseases of professionalism; even churches and social work agencies sometimes develop them. One of these diseases is red tape. Another is over-organization. Another is making the organization that was founded as a means to an end, an end in itself. In the latter instance, the important thing is not how much real contribution is this agency or organization making to the community, but how many patients did we have last year, how many can we report, how are we growing in comparison with the other hospital on the other side of the city, and how are our finances? Such a limited range of interest in medical work represents diseases in its organization which demand the prophylactics of education.

What Is the Community?

What by contrast is a sociological definition of the hospital and of the community?

The community is that area wherein persons get the maximum satisfaction of their wishes, whatever they may be. The area may be extensive geographically, or limited geographically. For example, we find people in New York city who for thirty years have never moved off a block. All their wishes are satisfied within that block. Therefore, that block constitutes their community. Other people have to go farther afield.

The community, therefore, represents a complex of services, or put in a different way, a complex of institutions, which not only keep people alive, but enable them to live their lives as they believe in living them, whatever their standards may be—one thing in China, another thing in rural Poland, and another thing in Williamsport, and still another thing in New York. The community is not merely a geographical notion, and the political boundaries which usually are taken to designate or delimit a community are not always valid. One important task in each hospital is definitely to find out its community, the area of its patronage, from which patients come. Such analysis will offer some idea at least of the range of service that hospitals are called up to perform.

The community, then, could better be thought of as a complex of services or a complex of institutions or agencies rendering the services needed. First of all they must give maintenance. The community must provide economic support. Then there are family activities, civic activities, and so on through the various institutions that every community has. The hospital, considered from this point of view, is a special institution set up or maintained by the community to satisfy people's wishes for security of life. It serves to relieve people of fear in that it guarantees protection of life, which is one of the functions the community should provide.

This sort of definition of the hospital differs from the one mentioned before because it begins with the community. Too often, the people who have established a hospital think that it is their own affair, but unless the community backs it in attitude and with money, they cannot get patients quickly or adequate support. Unless the hospital is very definitely based upon the community, its needs and resources, it cannot satisfy the needs that the community expects it to meet. And no hospital properly set up is set up for any professional group. The persons are merely the agents working through this institution to give the community what the community says it wants—security of life, protection against disease, and so on.

Training for the Community

Now how does such a concept of the hospital as a special agency in a community suggest problems of significance for nursing education? Progress in discussing this subject cannot be effective unless we avoid dealing in generalizations. One must ask, What hospital? In what community? Hospitals frequently differ, first, as communities differ and, secondly, as the hospital service may be divided up between several institutions in any one community. Suppose, for example, there is a hospital in a community in one of the western states where there are no mosquitoes. Could it be claimed that the problems of that hospital are just the same as those in Alabama, or Louisiana, or New Jersey, where mosquitoes are plentiful?

Do we send out our hospital executives and nurses in training, and other nurses also, to find out these characteristics of a community? Do they know what their community is or how to locate it? Do they have any notion of what is meant by community, other than locality or geography? If they do not, how are they going to find out their own problems? If they do not find out their own problems, they are going to carry stock answers right over from their last instructors. Solutions may fit and they may not—the chances are, too often, not.

The first task is to divide up this whole problem of nursing education into a series of problems. Think first of areas of service derived from a study of the community peculiarities, physical, financial, attitudinal, and the like. Thus, floor duty is an area of service. Supervision of the nurses on floor duty is another area of service, superintendence, another, hospital administration, another. So with the visiting

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service, the prenatal service, the post-natal work in the home, clinic service or school or rural nursing or state supervising.

Now, when professional work is broken up into these areas of service, then it becomes possible to discover the problems. The more these areas of service are differentiated, the more distinct problems emerge. Then it is possible to study specific case communities and specific case problems and deal with them as case problems. This is now done with reference to skills and techniques and procedures. Why not with reference to this larger area of the medical service, or of nursing in the community?

For example, consider the administrative area: If you are a hospital executive, an instructor, or a superintendent of nurses, it would seem possible to conclude that the community has no significance for you because the area of service is entirely within the walls of the hospital, so that the nurses and the work they do are the primary concern. But is this true?

Or, consider an ordinary nurse on night floor duty. Does she ever relate her experiences on night duty to the committee on the annual financial campaign? Columns after columns of the finest publicity material could come from the floor but the nurse never thinks of that relation between the hospital and the community and consequently, does not report it to the publicity expert. If, on the other hand, she does think about these larger relations, she keeps the obligations of the institution to the community in mind. When some unusual incident happens, at the first opportunity she makes a brief note or record of it and passes it on to the office. Before a day or two has passed, it gets into some corner of the newspaper where there was a hole to be filled up and the institution secures a valuable bit of publicity.

Most generally, nurses think of the community only when they have to have money. They want to think of the community three hundred and sixty-five days of the year, not only during the financial campaign or in preparation for it. If nurses are sensitized to the relations between the institution and the community, they will keep their eyes open for all the little ways that arise by which and through which they can cooperate with the organization and the administration, making the general work more effective, and aid in creating resources for its maintenance and development.

The Objectives of Nursing Education

Is it possible to telescope ordinary failure and success experience and, instead of blindly going along, to marshall the facts so that we may build a program which will provide valid objectives in nursing education, as well as in other forms of education?

First, realize that objectives will vary according to the work a particular nurse is likely to do. Suppose she is going to work in a hospital. What skills should she be taught? "Training" is good, for it gives the necessary techniques and professional skills. But how to determine the professional skills that the nurse has to be taught? Will she always be a nurse in this kind of a hospital, or is she likely to go out from this into visiting nursing in the country? How far is she trained not only for hospital floor duty, but for a recognition of rural problems of health and disease?

Many sincere and honest nurses complain because they think that the program is so full of required projects in skill acquisition that they have not time to study what they consider very important, namely, the larger aspects of their whole professional job. What should she be taught further than skills? Upon analysis of her professional activities it is easy to see that there are certain things she needs to know much about, and there are certain other things that are not so necessary. Is it necessary, for example, to teach a girl who is going to be in a hospital for some years the details of rural nursing? Or how to organize a rural visiting clinic? But is it of any value for that woman in the hospital who doesn't go out of the hospital for her professional service, as an ordinary nurse in the hospital, not as a supervisor or higher officer, to know there are such health agencies as visiting clinics?

Two types of objectives will emerge from careful study of the problems. One will be in terms of appreciation. That is, the nurse will be brought into contact with a great many forms of nursing, nursing organizations, nursing procedures and so forth, in a general way, just to know about them. So also there will be many problems of the community that she only needs to be introduced to, to be informed about or taught where to get information if she needs it at any time. These we will call *appreciational objectives.* Then there are other things that relate to her specific area of service that she really needs to know well. These may be called *productional objectives.*

One can determine the appreciational and productional objectives only in terms of specific areas of service. Therefore, it is essential to block out areas of service and say, "In these areas of service, what are the appreciational objectives? What are the things it will be well for this nurse to know about? What are the productional objectives? What are the things she has to know thoroughly with reference to the community, to groups in the community, and to the attitudes of the groups?"

Ought there not be, as a part of every hospital, a well organized bureau of research? Big hospitals have such, but generally they limit their efforts to social case work or scientific medical research. It would be helpful to expand this social work department so as to have, in connection with it in all large hospitals, a well organized department of research whose business it will be to get facts not only about the person and the case history for diagnosis, treatment and follow-up, but also to provide general information about the groups, the distributions of the groups in the community, what attitudes groups have toward the hospital and how these affect its conduct and maintenance.

Every nurse is confronted with significant and complex social problems: problems of changing attitudes of a patient during ward duty, problems of securing cooperation in home nursing of tuberculous patients, problems of convincing parents of the necessity of tonsillectomy, problems of public support of visiting clinics, all of which need scientific study in each center of nursing education. So, break up services into distinct areas and tease out of these areas the distinctive problems therein. Relate them to the characteristics of the people in the community with whom nurses have to work. We need a further analysis of areas of professional service and a relating of these to the concrete differential analyses of community characteristics. Such an approach will provide objectives and content in nursing education beyond anything which has been achieved.

DANIEL H. KULP, II

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More About Measuring Sticks

"IS it not true," asked Dr. Haven Emerson in the Survey Midmonthly for January 15, "that welfare work is the one field of social relationships in which there is no dependable mass of comparable facts available for our great communities, states, cities, nations?" The challenge he flung to the exponents of family welfare, child welfare, and case-workers in general is here taken up and discussed by a group of leaders in social work. On page 661 of this issue Raymond Clapp, on behalf of the American Association for Community Organization, reports the tentative use of a species of measuring stick which may prove useful in meeting the need for community analyses voiced by John Ihlder in a companion piece to Dr. Emerson's.

From the Known to the Unknown

MRS. CAUDLE in her curtain lectures ascends now and then to a happy and most fetching phrase. Dr. Haven Emerson, in his philippic against the orbitless, aimless course of modern social work, never falls below it. And just as the finer passages of the one told heavily on Caudle, so the biting Socratic periods of the other drive social work to the defensive and condemn it utterly. "Has social work any consistent measuring stick?" he asks. The answer is "No." "Can you have such a standard and will you ever do it?" and the answer is "Yes" and again "Yes." But you must be patient.

Social work springs from a new dawning of community consciousness. It protrudes from the old matrix of charity and the church. It is manned by a personnel ill trained and myopic. It is beset with all the intolerances of sect and function. It stands on a denominational footing to cope with problems which rest on a civic basis. It is therefore in a state of metamorphosis from ecclesiastical confine to civic outlook. This change it will not accomplish in a day. Time and leadership must ripen the point of view of the community toward the upbuilding of an intelligent defense system for society.

It is but yesterday in history that good Dr. Boylston was pursued with a rope for attempting to vaccinate against smallpox: and the directors of social work federations are fleeing from the same rope today because they want thoroughgoing research and educational publicity departments. It is only in the immediate present that we have dropped the moon out of lunacy: and it is probably true at this moment that three fourths of our "civilized" population do not believe in the germ theory of disease for the reason that they can't see the bugs!

In stepping from the known to the unknown, from such ground, say, as an analysis of vital statistics into the cloud-strewn vista of character building, it requires patience and unremitting endeavor to apply exact fact-finding methods. Social workers recognize numerous intangibles in their problem. They are probably mistaken in much of this, since science tends to make all things known; and those intangibles of personality held but yesterday to be sacred mysteries beyond our ken are now the quantitative materials of the new psychology. Science, for purposes of social work, has discovered the individual, just as for medicine it began to identify him when Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood.

Social work with far greater speed than any other profession in history is developing its measuring stick. The Federal Children's Bureau in over a hundred studies is seeking to place statistical fact and exact appraisal behind problems of citizenship efficiency. The great foundations are applying laboratory methods to an appraisal of human efficiency, to tendencies in conduct, and to values in training for professional service. Case work agencies are uniting in the study of the individuals they have helped in order to appraise the value and the soundness of the service rendered. Workers join in analytical study of adoption records, of the after course of illegitimates, of the extent of old age dependency. The best in social work today realizes the necessity for "orderly accumulated facts" to be gained through a positive and continuous effort at "learning the truth." John Ihlder, who ably seconds Dr. Emerson, states the position fairly when he says that there is danger in attempting to apply such a measuring stick to work of which the most valuable part is not tangible; but that this affords no adequate excuse for neglecting tools that may prove of value in gauging our progress.

ROBERT W. KELSO
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First Steps

TO one who has been engaged for some years now in practical research work in the field of social service, there are, first, certain fundamental steps which need to be taken; and, secondly, certain fundamental considerations to be had before we can so intrepidly attack the problem.

The fundamental steps which need to be taken, in my opinion, are these:

1. To revise and make uniform, for at least the larger agencies, the terminology of social work. There has been a scattering of attempts at this on the part of various national organizations, particularly the national field services. To make the terminology valuable and uniform for statistical purposes, however, the sectarian lines in the work of national field agencies in this respect, and sectarian lines generally, will have to be forgotten. Today, even in large agencies, a "case" in one agency is not a "case" in another.

2. Through a revision of our terminology, the second step of making information between cities or agencies within the city comparable will be taken; without such a step, there cannot be any valid work done statistically or in the developing of standards, ratios, or "measuring sticks" of any sort.

3. Should we develop comparable information and uniform terminology, we might aim at two types of standards: First, standards in the sense of aims and ideals; and, second, standards of procedure (i. e. standards of treatment). Even with the

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fluid material with which social work deals, there is a possibility of a reduction of cases to problems, and procedure to elements of procedure; so that with more or less agreement on the elements of procedure through standards of procedure, and with agreement among the agencies as to aims of various types of work, it will be possible to measure later on, statistically or otherwise, the validity of the aims and the force of various steps in the procedures.

4. A good deal of work has been done in an endeavor to create uniform records for various types of work. We must go a bit further and create records considerably shorter than the present records. In the Bureau of Jewish Social Research, we have had to read thousands of records in the course of years of work, particularly in the case work field. If information is to be got as a basis for creating "measuring sticks," or the judging of work in any field that implies the usual case work technique, the getting at the information will have to be made a much less arduous task and a much less expensive task. Both Dr. Emerson and Mr. Ihlder talk about decades of work, but decades will be all too short if we are really going to study the problems of poverty, child dependency, and so on, and have to read the present records. In our experience, it has been necessary sometimes to spend from two to three days merely to read through a single record of a single family that has had care over a long period of time. Statistical records should be devised wherein can be indicated steps taken and results achieved.

5. Statistical and research training will have to be given not merely to certain sub-executives, or to executives, but to people who are actually on the "firing line" in order that they may have a bent toward analysis in their work. No one attacks any problem on earth more gaily than does a statistician; and for that same reason, no one gets more futile results in analyses than some statisticians sometimes do. This is due to the fact that there have been statisticians attacking problems the details of which they can, in the nature of things, know very little about. Probably the best statistical work can be done by those who have a very thorough knowledge of a definite field, and have, in addition, the statistical training to do statistical work in that field.

In my opinion, these are five important steps that need to be taken before the development of "measuring sticks" can be advised, or really seriously considered.

I am going to indicate, in addition, certain fundamental considerations of which social workers should not lose sight.

In the first place, a good many "measuring sticks" applicable to social work, as both Dr. Emerson and Mr. Ihlder point out, are being developed by the sciences in which social work has its roots. The measuring sticks in economics and sociology, in biology and biometry, in psychology, and to a very considerable extent of course, in medicine, are very helpful in a consideration of problems in social work. They are basic in social work. A knowledge of what is done in these sciences, disseminated among social workers, would give a tremendous lift to scientific and professional social work.

In the second place, social service should be trained to think more in terms, and to endeavor to write more in terms of results. We have a tremendous literature, in spite of those who think we have very little literature, dealing with problems of diagnosis and problems of treatment. We have very little literature dealing with the result of treatment. A eugenist may attack the work of our family care agencies and indicate that all of this work tends toward a perpetuation of pauperism. Social service, insofar as family care work is concerned, has not analyzed its work over generations of families so as to indicate whether or not this is the result. We are stirred by controversies in the field of child care between those who work in institutions and those who work in placement agencies. The Bureau of Jewish Social Research has made intensive studies of some five thousand children under care of Jewish agencies. We are not so sanguine of the results of either type of care. Have we been as much interested in results as in propaganda?

A third consideration is whether or not the trustees of social work want social work to be placed on an absolutely professional basis—whether they want to be informed or whether they want to be satisfied. The scientific bent in social work will probably develop best as and when many of the boards of trustees are changed to a younger and more aggressive group, interested in problems for the sake of helping to solve the problems more than for the sake of dealing with community issues and sectarian issues in the narrow sense.

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A First Charge on Income?

SOME years ago, Graham Wallas wrote of the status of the science of politics:

> If Plato could visit us now he would learn that while our glass-makers proceed by rigorous and confident processes to exact results, our statesmen like the glass-makers of ancient Athens still trust to empirical maxims, personal skill, or even intuition. Why is it, he would ask us, that valid reasoning has proved so much more difficult in the social than in the physical sciences?

The same question might with the same pertinence be asked of social work. How amazing this all is in view of the enormity of the annual expenditures in the province with which we are here concerned. The data upon which to postulate even a slight statement of cause and effect, or actual results achieved, properly probed and rigorously tested, are very few. And how glibly do most social workers speak of their results in quantitative terms! It is no answer to state that we are dealing with human beings who are not subject to measurement in the same sense that a piece of steel may be calibrated and treated. Professor Bowley has stated with boldness, with a readiness to undertake a heavy task just because it challenges his ingenuity, that

> like other investigators the social statistician has to invent his own units of measurement. The degree of temperature, the unit of illumination and the standard of electrical potential afford familiar illustrations of the way in which the indefinite is made concrete. Electricity is more subtle than poverty or unemployment, and we should be able to devise scales for definite measurement of these. The difficulty lies not only in the vagueness of such terms as health, fatigue, leisure, but also in the fact that the subjects of our study are conscious beings whose feelings of satisfaction and pain are not a direct mathematical function of any objective qualities. We cannot evade this difficulty completely by dealing with a hypothetical average man, but we can make our ideas definite by considering how much a normal person would benefit by an hour's daily leisure, or twenty-two square feet of garden. It may well prove that some measurements are conceivable and desirable, but beyond the wit of man, and measurements of satisfaction are perhaps in this category.

I have often wondered why social service organizations did not make as a first charge upon their income a department to elicit information upon the degree to which the aim was being approached; to allocate even a small portion to discover in a fundamental way just what was really happening. The only reason I can give is that the social

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workers themselves have had little interest in such a development. If they had had such an interest, it would have been reflected in the program of the organizations. And it is hard to see why they have not had such an interest. *One* reason at least is a lack of acquaintance with the necessary technique. This is a gap which should rapidly be closed by proper courses and ready textbooks.

Another question which remains is a decision as to the agency which is to create these measuring rods. Is it to be the philanthropic institution? Is it to be an academic institution? Of the two, the latter is by far preferable for many reasons. A large opportunity awaits the man who will subsidize a department of a college to undertake just such studies.

It is time that the social worker re-echo one of the little-known statements of Charles Darwin, himself an observer of animal and human behavior, and who recognized the difficulty of certain measurements: "I have no faith in anything short of actual measurement and the Rule of Three."

MAURICE B. HEXTER
Federated Jewish Charities, Boston

Sympathy Before Statistics

"CARDS on the table" face up, placed there by fellow workers. Thanks to Dr. Emerson and Mr. Ihlder, A Plea for the Measurement of Social Reconstruction has come from those intimately connected with social work and not from critics outside the field. Criticism from our own number takes better and honest inquiries from those who know what they are talking about, challenge our best thinking. Honesty demands our admission to the criticisms in the article. In our earnestness to protect children, we struggle with an impossible case load, reserving little if any time or energy for studying the underlying causes necessitating this effort. Family societies provide the actual necessities of life for families whose wage rates fall below the minimum budget requirements. What, on the other hand, are these societies doing to shift this obligation from philanthropy to industry? Do we actually know the results of our efforts, not in regard to the few who have without question been helped, but in regard to all others involved? Dr. Emerson, after his criticism "Your case records, your methods of study and report, your principles in every respect, except the collection of funds, vary as widely as did those of medicine in the Middle Ages," suggests as a remedy "A state-wide non-sectarian body devoted to responsible direction of social effort, rather than to propaganda for a particular brand of philanthropy" and leaves with us a challenge "to enter the lists among believers in orderly accumulated facts."

Two doubts are in the writer's mind as to the value of the meagre attempts which have been made to date along this line. First, the accuracy of data obtained; and second, the accuracy of interpreting such data as is available.

Mr. Ihlder points out the dangers in any attempt "to apply a tangible measuring stick to a work the most valuable part of which is intangible." While trying to become more scientific, at least in so far as interpretation is concerned, care must be exercised, for even though it is most important, as Mr. Ihlder says, to know "how many crippled children there are in the community, what progress is being made toward curing them all, what are the causes of their being crippled, what progress can be and is being made to reduce those causes, and finally, the rate at which we are reducing the number of crippled children," the average contributor today is more interested in learning that "an enthusiastic luncheon club has employed a skillful surgeon to operate on three crippled children and has received from the parents of these children expressions of gratitude." In other words, the appeal to human sympathy is paramount. This, however, is fully as possible in research activities as in the daily grind of more limited service. The need today is for both.

JOHN P. SANDERSON
Social Welfare League, Rochester, N. Y.

Some Needed Indices

MORE yardsticks for measuring social problems, by all means! Most communities have not yet progressed to the point where they systematically gather and study the cost of social work as measured by the well known unit, the dollar. In New York city, for example, no one can any more than approximate what the bill is per capita for social work as a whole or for the many branches of it. For this reason it is difficult to criticize adequately present expenditure for social work and it is still more difficult to plan adequately the cost side of what should be done in social work. Careful, systematic and complete gathering of cost data from public and voluntary organizations engaged in social work is one of the most fundamental primitive needs for a measuring stick of this kind.

There is also a real need for systematic effort to create a poverty index for each community. It would not be more difficult than to create an index of the cost of living or some of the other numerous statistical indices with which we are familiar in the business and financial world.

The relation existing between nationality and poverty or nationality and orphanhood is relatively unknown because there is no systematic effort to relate such social problems to nationality, as has already been done in relating infant mortality to nationality, tuberculosis to nationality and so on.

It is true that in the main field of social work, as distinguished from health work, a statistical foundation such as health work provides is not available. There is a greater tendency, however, on the part of family welfare and social organizations to compile more and more accurate statistical statements about their work. It must be recognized from the start that social problems are even more complex and more difficult to measure with a yard stick than are some of the elementary facts in the health field. Birth and death are phenomena of so much importance in our civilization that we have acquired by law careful birth and death statistics. Even in the health field, however, when one gets beyond these classes of data, there is still much need for adequate measuring. We know almost as little about sickness rates, which are even more important than death rates, as we do about divorce rates, housing facts, community orphan rates, widowhood rates, and other social factors referred to by Dr. Emerson. Social work measuring rods are undoubtedly not as adequate as health measuring rods but what we need is more adequate measurements in both fields.

We are coming into possession of more accurate information with regard to income and its distribution in the United States. This kind of fact gathering should be continuous

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and systematic and should be much more widely extended. By all means, let us have more measurings, more facts, more carefully organized statistical departments of social work organizations and more community-wide fact gathering, social measuring groups. We cannot build safely or wisely without the foundation of such facts. Gathering them and making them available is a task less dramatic, less charged with an emotional fringe than many of the things that we are doing in the field of social work but it is a challenge to the intelligent thinking group in our community to find a way to accomplish it.

BAILEY B. BURRITT
A. I. C. P., New York

A Present Program

JUST a year ago, the need of establishing a division of statistical service in such a state-wide, non-sectarian body as the Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania was urged by Dr. Haven Emerson. A careful study of the subject met with the heartiest response from social agencies, both public and private. The leaders in sociology and statistics in our colleges and universities thoroughly endorsed the proposed service and urged its establishment.

An advisory committee of state and national authorities in these fields was chosen. A tentative budget and personnel for a three-year demonstration of such a state-wide service was prepared. The scope of the job immediately ahead of such a new activity was outlined. It was felt that support for such a new demonstration in social welfare statistics should come partly from local funds and, because of its value and significance for social work everywhere, should be of sufficient interest to secure part support from one of the great foundations.

The whole field, however, is so untilled, the work in it has been so limited, the factors entering into social statistics seem to present so many difficulties, that the Public Charities Association felt after many consultations with experts that the proposed division of statistical service should not be attempted until more is known of what is involved in such a project. Would it not be wiser first to survey the whole subject? Should we not first study some of our basic facts? What data is or can be made available for statistical comparison in social work agencies?

The Association, therefore, modified its proposal. It plans now to secure by July, if possible, the services of a recognized expert in statistics and social work to conduct with proper assistants a survey for one year. Upon the basis of his report would rest the recommendation actually to set up a division of statistical service as a demonstration to agencies throughout Pennsylvania.

At the American Statistical Association's recent meeting in New York this subject was presented by the Public Charities Association and a special sub-committee on social statistics was there appointed.

The matter has been formally presented to one of the foundations. Its reply is eagerly awaited. With assurances of such outside backing and support the quota of local funds should be readily obtained. The scientific value and practical usefulness of such a fact finding study must be apparent. The mere question of financial support must not stand in the way of its accomplishment.

Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania GEORGE R. BEDINGER

Preventing Suicide

THE height of rational nonsense, as a cynical anthropologist remarked a few weeks ago, would be to make attempted suicide a capital offense. Yet the present laws which turn over to the police the sick and unfortunate persons who have tried to take their own lives, fall little short of that solution in absurdity. Recently the chance newspaper attention which was occasioned by staff transfers in the Salvation Army in London brought to public notice the Anti-Suicide Bureau of that organization which had been carried on quietly for nearly twenty years with the aim of giving constructive help to desperate men and women, foreshadowing the adult guidance clinics which several community houses in this country recently have established.

The Anti-Suicide Bureau was started in 1907 by General William Booth, who was appalled at the number of suicides in London, especially among young people, and set apart an officer of the Army, with an efficient staff, to try to help those who were in danger of taking their own lives. Naturally there was much ridicule; people said that men and women who were seriously considering suicide would not take the trouble to tell General Booth's people, or even their own relatives. On the contrary, the records of coroners' courts show that most people who commit suicide have given repeated warnings of their intention.

During its first year the Anti-Suicide Bureau dealt with 1,124 persons. They included military officers, doctors, lawyers, old sea captains, journalists, architects, builders, chemists, actors, teachers, laborers, clerks, tradesmen, mechanics and other skilled workers, clergymen, missionaries, and others. More than half of them (54 per cent) had been oppressed by money worries or hopeless poverty; drugs, drink and disease were thought to account for the troubles of 11 per cent; melancholia, proceeding from loneliness and other causes, for 9 per cent; crimes, such as forgery and embezzlement, for 5 per cent; and general causes, defined as accidents, sickness and other misfortunes, for 21 per cent. These categories would probably show a considerable change in a present day analysis. The "cases" are brought in by their anxious relatives and friends, by social workers, and by the police themselves, for a former chief of the metropolitan police was so impressed by the accomplishments of the Salvation Army that he made a general order empowering the chief of each district to hand over certain would-be suicides to the Army.

The treatment has been almost as varied as the motley array of unhappy people who come, or are brought, to the little office up two flights in Whitechapel Road. There are men out of work who need a job and a friend to reassure and steady them while they are learning how to make good in it; there was a London newsboy who had gambled away one night the little capital which bought him his papers each day and his earnings for that day, and so had no chance of ever getting started again until they gave him money and friendly help; there was a rich merchant who developed a wholly imaginary despair at the state of his business, which was put in order while he was away on a holiday, and turned back to him in smoothly running order; the man who had come to London to have a needed operation, and finding his money insufficient, had become despondent—his story had only to be brought to the attention of a great

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surgeon. The Bureau works in cooperation with other departments of the Army's Social Scheme, and has been assisted greatly by physicians, lawyers and other professional and business men who have become interested in its work. Many of the Bureau's clients drift beyond its reach when their acute need is past, and their further story is unknown to it, but the officers in charge feel that there are comparatively few relapses. During sixteen years Brigadier Reginald B. Chapman, whose name has been associated with practically its whole course, knew of only three persons of the thousands who have passed through it who had persisted in their determination to kill themselves.

Almshouse Boarders

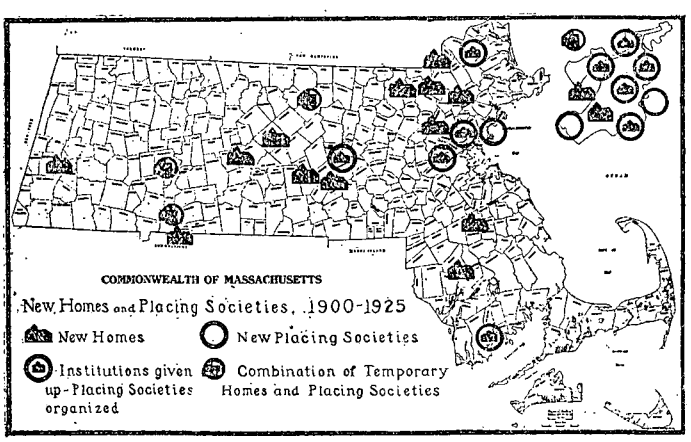
WE have come gradually to the conclusion that one of the most worth while things we can do for aged dependent people, is so to place them that their happiness is a primary consideration.

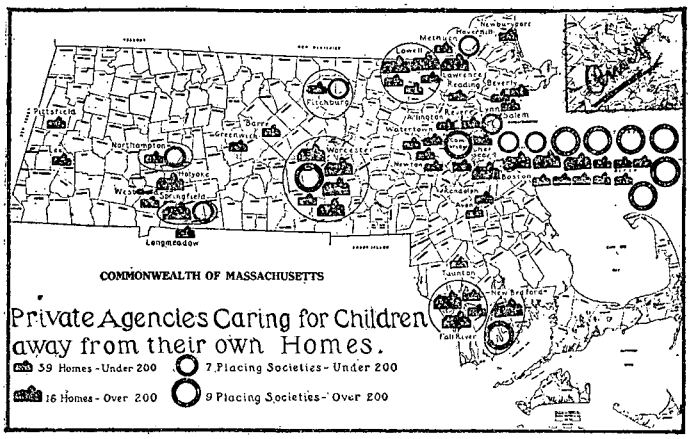
Personally I feel that a serious mistake often is made when the aged person is removed from the family. He or she is a family problem, or, in many cases, a part of the family problem. Workers whose field of endeavor lies in the welfare of the family have been too apt to solve the difficulties that confront them by the removal of a non-productive, and perhaps rather objectionable elderly individual, relative by blood to the family, and belonging by right to it. The happiness of the old person is sacrificed for what may have been considered the greater good of the whole.

Uncle John is old, careless, untidy—he is a bad example for the children—remove him. Rather, of course, keep him in the family and by doing so inculcate in the children a growing spirit of unselfishness and an interest in the welfare of others. Children of today need Uncle Johns. Aunt Mary must have constant supervision and cannot be left alone—well, again, let the duty of attending her devolve upon her nieces and nephews. Why rush Uncle John and Aunt Mary into an almshouse or a home for the aged? Why remove the unpleasant but necessary obligations from the children? Is it not part of a child's broader education?

There are, of course, many unattached old people, individuals who have outlived their families. In these cases a boarding home should be found. Old people are happier if they live as members of a fairly normal family.

Usually, in our cities there is also the possibility of the home for the aged, where people with a small amount of money are cared for through life. But the old person who has some means, and lives in a country town has no such institution to which to turn. It was because of this fact


COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS
New Homes and Placing Societies, 1900-1925
New Homes
New Placing Societies
Institutions given up-Placing Societies organized
Combination of Temporary Homes and Placing Societies


COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS
Private Agencies Caring for Children away from their own Homes.
39 Homes - Under 200
16 Homes - Over 200
7 Placing Societies - Under 200
9 Placing Societies - Over 200

that we have put in practise a system, in some of our Massachusetts towns, of receiving such people into our town homes, or almshouses, as boarders.

It may be that the applicant owns a little home, and because of feeble health or the ills of old age needs companionship and a limited amount of nursing care. In such cases the little property is deeded to the town, and the former owner takes up an abode at the town home. Is this not better, both for the individual and for the town, than a continued fight alone with advancing years, poverty and eventually aid as a public dependent? One's personal independence is retained. Again a person is taken in at a flat weekly cost, say seven dollars a week, and gets much more than could be obtained in a boarding home for twice the amount. It is invariably understood that the person's status is the same as though he or she was an inmate; if he is able, he is expected to share in little tasks, and no distinction of dietary is made.

Those little country almshouses in Massachusetts are, as a rule, comfortable farm houses. The inmate population usually cannot be considered objectionable. Individual rooms give privacy and a certain hominess; and the boarder becomes an interested part of the small family.

This experiment as tried in Massachusetts has been successful. It has placed at the disposal of the aged inhabitant of the country town as pleasant and as happy a home as he or she would get if placed in a city home for the aged. One big factor that makes for happiness lies in the fact that an almshouse population is not always composed of aged people. It is a fair substitute for family life with supervisory care.

There are in this state today several almshouses where fifty per cent of the inmate population is paying board. I recall one town home where six out of fourteen are boarders, one where twelve out of fifteen are boarders, and cases where the board is as high as eighteen dollars a week. In another home, where three old ladies constitute half the population, one is a former school teacher, and the other two are daughters of the former village blacksmith. They gave their home to the town and moved to the almshouse, where they are occupying two spacious rooms furnished with their own belongings, and are living out their declining years in touch with life-long friends in the little town in which they and their forebears were born and have lived.

A little town could not support both an almshouse and a home for aged people. The almshouse is of the community and takes all. Why not then improve its standard by accepting as boarders the aged near-dependent who needs companionship and friendly care?

FRANCIS G. BARDWELL

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INDUSTRY

An Experiment in Coal

A nation-wide open shop drive to check the growth of trade unionism by deflating war time wage scales followed the signing of the armistice. In 1922 the organized miners in the bituminous fields won a strike lasting five months to withstand the demand of the operators for a reduction of wages. During the winter of 1923-4 the bituminous operators renewed their effort for a revision of the wage scale downward. Led by John L. Lewis, the union successfully renewed their resistance, setting a date on which another national coal strike would have been called had the operators persisted in their threat to cut wages. But the second great bituminous strike did not occur. On February 19, 1924, the operators of the central competitive field, meeting with the union representatives at Jacksonville, Florida, signed the so-called "Jacksonville Agreement."

In the annual report of the Department of Commerce for the year ended June 30, 1924, Secretary Hoover stated that it was "through cooperation by the department with the unionized operators and with the leaders of the United Mine Workers [that] a long term agreement has been entered upon, which insures industrial peace in the industry."

Under the Jacksonville agreement, the wage scale established by President Wilson's Bituminous Coal Commission was continued for a period of three years. On a referendum vote of the membership, the miners approved the work of their leaders. In this article Professor Ware describes the effects of the Jacksonville agreement upon conditions in the Western Kentucky coal field. At our invitation, Ellis Searles, editor of the United Mine Workers' Journal, comments on Professor Ware's article from the union point of view.

THE coal industry is a mess. It satisfies no one except the economist, who can prove from it any theory he may be in love with. If he is a follower of Adam Smith he finds in the recent anthracite strike all the ills he ascribes to industrial and labor monopoly. But his opponent has only to mention the bituminous situation to prove how false is the classicist's idol, competition. On the labor side the same contradictions exist. An industrial union in both the hard and soft coal fields can hold up the country in one and is feeble and growing daily more feeble in the other.

It is not the intention of the writer to discuss the "coal problem." That has been done ad nauseam with little gain. What is needed is a laboratory experiment which fortunately we have; not perfect, but more enlightening perhaps than the usual very general studies of "coal."

The problem is trade unionism in the soft coal industry. The laboratory is the Western Kentucky coal field and the experiment was carried on in 1924 and 1925.

As is well known, the soft coal industry, and with it the U.M.W., is in a precarious position, identical with that of the steel industry in the 'nineties and the Iron and Steel Workers' union of that time. The steel industry came through but the union went down. In West Kentucky the coal industry has not yet come through, but the union is already destroyed. There were two reasons for the past success of the U.M.W.: one was John Mitchell; the other the small unit character of the industry. John Mitchell has gone and the industry is today passing through a belated industrial revolution.

We are so accustomed to look upon the industrial revolution as purely mechanical, an affair of machines, that we are likely to ignore its institutional side, the development of large scale production. This institutional revolution was certainly hurried by machinery but it began before the inventions and would have run its course without them. Large scale production appeared first in those industries which were technically adapted to it. Those industries, like steel and coal, which were not so adapted had to wait upon the creation of the large-scale credit institutions of our time. These consolidated the steel industry in the 'nineties and they will probably do the same in the more difficult—because more widely spread—soft coal industry in the next few years. In the consolidation of the steel industry the union disappeared. Will the union disappear in the coal industry under the same process? As a partial answer to this question the story of the West Kentucky coal strike is here told.

On April 15, 1924, from eight to ten thousand soft coal miners went on strike in Western Kentucky and stayed out one whole year. The strike was remarkable for its obstinacy, peacefulness, entire lack of publicity, and its "lesson" for the industry as a whole. The strike was lost. The union, District 23, United Mine Workers of America, is broken up though for twenty-seven years it had maintained itself, surrounded by non-union mines, in contractual relations with the West Kentucky Coal Operators' Association. Though District 23 is below the Ohio there was nowhere in the soft coal industry a longer tradition of trade unionism and a more vigorous union spirit. Before the United Mine Workers of America was thought of a mine was opened by members of the Knights of Labor two miles from Central City and named after Terence V. Powderly. It is still going though no longer on a cooperative basis. It is still the Powderly mine though ironically enough it was one of the first in the county to operate successfully with non-union labor.

In one respect this district is unique. There are no "foreigners" in the mines. Aside from the negroes, who are members of the union, every miner is of English, Scotch, Irish, or German descent. They, and the operators as well, are members of pioneer families, the same families, who settled the "Dark and Bloody Ground" before coal was discovered.

The Western Kentucky coal field is made up of some seven counties of which Muhlenberg is the center. Three of these, Ohio, McLean, and Muhlenberg have been organ-

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ized as District 23, United Mine Workers of America, for twenty-seven years. A few years ago Hopkins and Webster counties were added, but shortly after the strike was called these two newly organized counties were lost and their mines opened on the open-shop basis at a reduction of 20 per cent in the union wage scale, which was a differential of those of the Central Competitive Field.

The previous winter at Jacksonville, Florida, the 1920 wage scale was renewed by the United Mine Workers of America and the operators. Toward the end of March the West Kentucky Operators' Association and District 23 began negotiations for a new contract. The miners demanded the Jacksonville agreement as a matter of course, but the operators refused to sign, claiming that they had not made money in 1923 and that they would go bankrupt if they had to operate further at the peak wage scale of 1920. They offered instead the 1917 scale which meant a reduction of wages of about 38 per cent. This was refused and a compromise offer was made of a reduction of 25 per cent and a contract for three years. As the old agreement expired on April 1 a postponement was arranged to allow the miners' representatives to consult with the International officers. The International officers rejected the compromise offer. District 23 was told by President Lewis to stand pat, and the strike was called April 15.

The fact seems to be that the coal market was so unsatisfactory that neither operators nor miners were particularly anxious to come to terms. The mines had run only 125 days in 1923 and there was no better prospect in 1924. Even if the compromise had been accepted it is doubtful if enough coal would have been mined to give the miner a living wage or the operator a profit. The acceptance of the compromise would have saved the district organization, but there was no way of accepting it and remaining a part of the U.M.W. as long as the International officers took the position that there should be "No backward step from the Jacksonville agreement."

There was no ill feeling on either side. The union supplied the operators with maintenance men at the old scale to prevent damage to the mines and the International began issuing rations to the strikers. These rations consisted almost entirely of groceries and were after a few weeks sufficient. They included flour, corn meal, bacon, lard, sugar, oat meal, salt, and baking soda. Some shoes were issued but those families who had little or nothing in reserve when the strike began suffered considerably from want of clothing. Others said they were better off while on strike than they were in 1923 when at work.

NO attempt was made to operate the mines until the end of August, when suddenly the attitude of the operators changed. They decided to open their mines and break the union. A letter was sent to every miner in the district offering the 1917 scale of wages. The union immediately withdrew its maintenance men from the mines and everyone waited for August 25 when the whistles were to blow. The whistles blew, but that was all. Practically none of the strikers went back to work.

The reason for this change of tactics on the part of the operators is probably to be found in the temporary rise in the price of coal toward the end of the summer and in the conditions in Hopkins and Webster counties. Shortly after the strike broke out the North American Company, through a subsidiary, the West Kentucky Coal Company, bought up ten mines in Hopkins and Webster counties belonging to the St. Bernard Company. It also had options, later allowed to lapse, on seven of the largest mines in Muhlenberg county. The new company broke away from the Operators' Association and opened its mines on a non-union basis at a wage scale below the Jacksonville agreement. Thus the union lost the two counties organized only two years and the operators were again faced with competition of non-union mines. It is true they had competed with non-union mines in Hopkins county before, but now they met not comparatively small companies like their own, but a corporation, the West Kentucky Coal Company, capitalized at $15,000,000 and controlling in all 25 mines with an annual output of 5,000,000 tons. Then too the leaders of the operators' association had expected their own mines to be bought up. The strike stood in the way of a much greater consolidation.

After the fiasco of August 25 no change occurred in the strike stiuation until November when the operators began to open their mines with non-union labor. Eviction orders were secured, temporary injunctions issued, and mine guards, rifles, amunition, and searchlights were imported. The stage was set for a first class industrial war but no war broke out. The miners remained obdurate but peaceful and the market for coal was dead. Not until the beginning of 1925 were there serious defections from the ranks of the strikers, but by April the men had returned to work and individual bargaining. Since then the soft coal industry has been artificially stimulated by the anthracite strike and non-union miners in Western Kentucky and elsewhere were the ones who found the silver lining of the cloud that hung over the hard coal miners of Pennsylvania.

THOSE who are interested in coal, especially the officers of the U.M.W., might well study with profit this little experiment of 1924-5 in Western Kentucky. Here on a small scale was tried out the policy of John Lewis and here are—for the union—the disastrous results of that policy. In all likelihood the same policy elsewhere will be followed by the same results.

Briefly the hypothesis upon which the experiment was undertaken by the union was this: "There are admittedly too many miners and too many mines. Some are union and some are not. The 1920 wage scale is not too high, considering the risks of the industry and the short working year. By a policy of 'No backward step' from this scale a few outlying districts like Number 23 may be lost but the heart of unionism in the central competitive field will hold and when the surplus stocks of the operators are cleared up work will resume at the old scale. We can afford to lose a battle to win a war."

But unionism in the central competitive field is losing daily and the chief reason for this is that Western Kentucky and other fields are no longer union. If you lose enough battles you cannot win the war.

Let us suppose another hypothesis. We begin with the same assumptions: too many miners and too many mines, some union and some not. What the U.M.W. wants is to eliminate the non-union mines and miners with as little sacrifice of the wage scale as possible. At least that is what it should want. Its present officers seem to think the wage scale more important than the union. Supposing

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further that District 23 had accepted some such compromise as was offered, what would have happened?

First, there would have been no strike and the earnings of the men would have been about the same as in 1923.

Second, non-union competition would have had no advantage because of lower wages; the two weak counties would have held.

Third, with the recent recovery of the market the union could have strengthened its position and possibly—depending upon the length of the term of the contract and its expiration date—could have brought wages back to the 1920 scale.

There is on this hypothesis some danger to the scales in the Central Competitive Field but there, too, a compromise would have been sounder policy than the attitude which shut down union mines and put non-union mines on a paying basis.

The experiment in Western Kentucky demonstrates that whatever may be possible or desirable in the anthracite field there is needed for the maintenance of unionism in the bituminous industry a willingness to face facts and the readiness and ability to compromise. John Lewis is a fighter. What the U.M.W. seems to need is a diplomat. Lewis is obsessed by the wage scale idea. What the U.M.W. needs is a man like Mitchell obsessed by the union idea, believing one district organization to be worth a dozen wage scales. The West Kentucky experiment indicates that the present policy of the U.M.W. leaders is admirably calculated to promote non-union mining and destroy the union in the soft coal industry. NORMAN J. WARE

A Rejoinder

THE foregoing article so closely resembles the propaganda that is being circulated by non-union coal operators that the coincidence is striking, to say the least. There is in full swing in this country today a gigantic campaign for the destruction of the United Mine Workers of America, so that the mine workers may be driven back to the conditions that disgraced the industry prior to the coming of the union. John L. Lewis has fought that destructive movement and he is still fighting it, and in that fight he is solidly supported by the half million union coal miners who are determined that no such backward step shall be taken.

One of the insidious features of this campaign to wipe out the union is the carefully-planned, lavishly-financed and brazenly-executed scheme to drive John L. Lewis from the leadership of the organized miners. The non-union coal companies and their affiliated industrial and financial interests are well aware that they never can enforce their ruinous policy upon the miners so long as President Lewis is the leader. Therefore, the word has gone out that Lewis must be destroyed first of all. That campaign is being carried on in both the bituminous and the anthracite branches of the industry. They have attacked Lewis with fiendish bitterness on all sides. They seek to discredit him with the miners and with the general public. They try to stir up dissension and discontent within the ranks of the union by charging Lewis with almost everything short of downright villainy.

But with all of this flare-up of personal attack and denunciation of Lewis, he stands today a bigger figure in the coal mining industry than ever before. These attacks have not cost Lewis the loss of confidence that the attackers hoped for. The union miners believe in him with the most implicit faith. They know he is honest and that he is fighting their battle under circumstances and conditions that never before confronted any labor leader in America. They know he is a fighter, and they know, too, that he is a square shooter who will go to the last honorable limit to protect them and their interests. Their faith in Lewis cannot be broken or destroyed by the frantic onslaughts of his and their enemies.

The miners of Western Kentucky are just as loyal in their hearts to the union today as ever they were. If the coal operators of Western Kentucky doubt that statement, we challenge them to permit their employes to vote on the question of whether they wish the union to be restored to its old strength in District No. 23. We dare them to permit their employes to vote on the question of whether they wish to join the union and live and work under union protection. It was no fault of the policy of the United Mine Workers of America that the miners of Western Kentucky accepted a starvation wage. The union cannot be held responsible for their present plight. The union tried to prevent a reduction and to help them to maintain a decent American standard. That's why these operators hate the union. They starved their employes into submission. Surrender or starvation for their families was the alternative that was offered to them. They were forced to give up, after armed gunmen, evictions and injunctions were used on them.

Western Kentucky was and still is a hotbed of the campaign for destruction of the miners' union. Powerful financial interests are connected with the coal industry in that field, and there is such an interlocking of big business that its voice carries to the farthest corners of the country.

ELLIS SEARLES

Strikeless Railroads?

THE Railway Labor Bill is the railroad industry's own plan for peace. Introduced into Congress on January 7, and the subject of extended hearings since that time, the measure is remarkable in at least two particulars: it represents an *agreement* on legislation between management and employes; it is the first legislation in which a duty has been imposed upon an industry to settle its affairs by the methods of collective bargaining. But the bill is more than a legislative proposal; it is a description of the state of affairs which the workers and executives consider most likely to insure continuity of service and the elimination of that most calamitous disaster—a national railroad strike. Any mature proposal having such an objective is worthy of the attention and analysis of all students of the human problems of industry.

With the exception of the regime of the Railroad Labor Board, the stability of labor conditions on the railroads has always served as an example for the rest of the industrial world. This has been true because collective bargaining, through direct conferences, has on the carriers been a practice, not a theory. Nothing has yet been suggested which can produce the same feeling of a square deal (upon which, after all, labor *esprit de corps* ultimately rests) as voluntary agreements covering the conditions of employment

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entered into between the carriers and their employes. Such a system, furthermore, provides by a simple and gradual process for representative government in our most important public utility. *Collective bargaining* has therefore been made the very cornerstone of the railway labor bill. A general duty is imposed "to exert every reasonable effort *to make and maintain agreements* concerning rates of pay, rules, and working conditions, . . . in order to avoid any interruption to commerce or to the operation of any carrier . . . ." Such agreements, and the interpretations put upon them by railroad custom or decision, will become the industrial common law of the railroads.

Well-Tested Machinery of Adjustment

The machinery provided for the administration of the plan enjoys a double advantage: it is simple; it is empirical, for it is based entirely on experience under the Erdman, Newlands, or Transportation Act, under federal control, or on practices of the business not to be found in any statute. All disputes must be first considered "in conference between representatives, designated and authorized so to confer, respectively, by the carriers and by the employes thereof interested in the dispute." Primary emphasis is laid upon these conferences, already an established practice on almost every system. The Act provides that in such conferences the conferees must be independent, selected "without interference, influence or coercion" by the other party. It is obvious that a contract entered into or a dispute adjusted by agreement between the carrier and dummies imposed by the carrier upon its workers as their "representatives," against their express wishes, is not a contract which is likely to be much respected or to serve as the basis for industrial good will; such tactics would certainly defeat the purpose of legislation designed to preserve the continuity of transportation service. The autocratic methods of the Pennsylvania management, now a matter of judicial record, in refusing to allow their shop employes freely to select their representatives would be a violation of the proposed law.

It has long been recognized that disputes over *changes* in rates of pay or working conditions involve considerations of a different character from disputes over the application to specific situations of trade agreements, or disputes arising out of individual grievances. Accordingly the bill provides different methods for the handling of each, although the duty to seek first a settlement in conference applies equally to both. It is provided that all grievances and disputes over the application of existing agreements, not settled in such conferences, are to be passed upon by Boards of Adjustment, to be established by agreement between any carrier or group of carriers and the employes thereof. These boards are to be composed of practical railroad men, half from the management, half from the employes, and their decisions are to be binding upon the disputants. To these boards will go the problems which can be adjusted intelligently only by men within the industry who, through years of experience, have become versed in its traditions and customs. Such boards are not innovations: they are patterned after those operating for years on the Canadian railroads; a few, covering the transportation service only, are now functioning upon some of our carriers; during federal control four such boards, national in scope, proved their merit beyond all doubt. For example, Board No. 1 handled nearly three thousand disputes during federal control. It was reported that every case was decided by *unanimous* vote of the eight members, and not a single case was appealed to the director-general. Since these boards handle simply technical questions of interpretation under agreements already existing, and have nothing to do with policy, or with the *formation* or change of agreements, the objection that no place has been provided for a "public member" has no weight.

If a dispute arises over a proposed *change*—a request for an increase in wages, or for a revision of working rules, for example—the conference method must first be exhausted. In most cases, if railroad history is any guide, a compromise settlement will be effected in such a conference. For the exceptional cases involving changes, and for those cases taken to an adjustment board which it is unable to decide, provision has been made for a Board of Mediation.

Good-will, not Compulsion

This third administrative method set up by the bill further illustrates the emphasis put upon voluntary agreements and the employment of tested agencies. The board is to be composed of five nonpartisan commissioners to be named by the President; the positions are to carry a salary and a dignity to make them attractice to men of high ability and the ripest experience. When they speak, it is to be on behalf of the general public, but their tone is to be that of conciliation, not compulsion. Through the medium of this board the whole community is provided with a spokesman. The fact that the Board of Mediation is to have none of the trappings of a court, as is the case with the present Railroad Labor Board, will help to make it an instrument of peace, instead of an irritant. It is to be the duty of this Board to further the purposes of railroad peace by endeavoring to induce disputants who have been unable to agree to re-open negotiations, to recede from extreme positions, to compromise and yield, so that an agreement may finally be reached. From 1898 until 1920 just such a board was in existence under both the Erdman and the Newlands Acts; time after time during those years the good offices of the commissioners led to a peaceful and voluntary disposition of a stubbornly contested controversy, which otherwise would surely have catapulted the nation into a disastrous strike. For instance, in less than four years (1913-1917) the board participated in 107 disputes, involving a total of 545 carriers and over 610,000 employes, a settlement being reached in every case without a single strike!

If a dispute cannot be settled in conference or by the appropriate Adjustment Board, and if, after making every effort to induce the parties to agree on the matter, the Mediation Board finds the deadlock still unshaken, it becomes the board's final duty to propose and urge another kind of settlement, an agreement to submit the dispute to a board of arbitration. Such a board is to be composed of appointees of the parties, plus a "neutral" member or members, to be selected by the parties' own appointees, or in default of such agreement, by the Mediation Board itself. Under the terms of the bill, all the conditions of the arbitration are decided upon before proceedings begin. Entry into such arbitration is purely voluntary, but an award when made is to have the effect of a legal judgment. These arbitration provisions are likewise not experimental, but are substantially the provisions of the Erdman and Newlands

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Barrick in Cleveland Plain Dealer

ON THE RIGHT TRACK

Acts, with the elimination of provisions of those acts which, in actual practice, proved to be slow and unwieldy.

Perhaps no single practice has been more injurious to railroad labor morale than sudden, arbitrary changes in wage scales or working conditions. A special section of the bill is devoted to Procedure in Changing Rates of Pay, Rules and Working Conditions; the section requires thirty days' notice of such an intended change, with opportunity for prompt conference thereon. While conferences are being held, or the Board of Mediation is still endeavoring to induce a settlement or an arbitration, no proposed changes can be put into effect.

If all these measures for peace prove unsuccessful and the Board of Mediation believes the unsettled dispute "threatens substantially to interrupt interstate commerce to a degree such as to deprive any section of the country of essential transportation service," the board may notify the President who is authorized to appoint a temporary board to investigate the dispute and report upon it. Such report is expected to inform the public mind and thereby force a settlement.

Strength Where the Labor Board Was Weak

These are the out-standing provisions of the bill which both union leaders and railroad executives have told Congress will guarantee (as nearly as possible) the elimination of strikes and the promotion of harmonious relations upon the railroads. The contrast with the present law, Title III of the Transportation Act of 1920, is striking. In the first place, the employes from the very first had no faith in Title III, and prophecied its failure. Some of the most important executives—such as those in charge of the Pennsylvania—had no confidence in that law, and refused to utilize its provisions, or obey the orders of the Labor Board. If this proposal, as agreed upon, is enacted, it will have the tremendous moral advantage of representing the views of those most intimately concerned; the country can well say to the carriers and employes: "We've given you what you asked for; now its up to you to settle your disputes amicably."

How the Public Can Function

Another advantage is the abandonment of the tri-partite principle upon which the present Labor Board was organized. The notion that the public interest in the settlement of railroad labor disputes can best be served by "representation" upon a board deciding those disputes is superficial and unsound, however logical it may seem. The public members of the Labor Board, ignorant of railroad labor affairs, are hopelessly lost in the intricacies of technical problems, and unaware of the nuances of labor adjustment. And to say that the politicians from Tennessee and Kentucky who were appointed *represent* the public interest simply because they were not employed by the carriers or the employes, is an idea which no student of these problems takes very seriously. The public (or shipper-consumer) interest, is still too unorganized and ill-defined to be capable of such direct "representation," even if we assume that labor relations can be regulated with the precision with which we regulate rate structures and bond issues, a doubtful assumption. The theory of the railroad industry's bill is that the public interest in continuous and efficient operation can best be served by insisting that management and men confer on their common problems, under fair conditions; that they regulate their affairs through collective agreements; that when agreement is impossible, that they have the assistance of expert labor adjusters, and the pressure of a public report by a temporary lay agency.

That the present Railroad Labor Board is discredited and valueless has been generally admitted for more than two years. And never since the shopmen's strike in 1922 was it a more irritating or impotent body. There are, at the present time, two important railroad strikes of several months duration: that of the telegraphers on the Atlantic Coast Line, and the engineers and firemen on the Western Maryland Railroad. The Labor Board has shown itself utterly incapable of handling the situations out of which such strikes inevitably arise; it is now chiefly devoting itself to the consideration of personal grievance disputes. The larger unions have definitely refused to go to the Labor Board, and many railroads follow the same avowed policy.

The present measure seems, therefore, particularly timely and necessary. Since it has been introduced under Administration auspices, and since it has strong support among the opposition, it is likely to be enacted into law. Its proponents predict that under the regime of the Railway Labor Act the country can look forward confidently to a strikeless era, and to a higher standard of employe-employer relations than has ever been attained in American industrial history.

DAVID E. LILIENTHAL

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Next Summer at Wisconsin

MIDWAY between the close of the first Summer School for Working Women at the University of Wisconsin and the opening of the second session, those responsible for this venture in workers' education are giving thought to the lessons of its brief past and the promise of its future.

Its past may be easily recounted [see The Survey, Feb. 15, 1925, p. 596, for a description of the 1924 beginning]. On July, 1925, forty-one girls came to Madison from nine states of the north Middle-West, from the Dakotas to Michigan, from Kansas to Ohio. Sent by trade unions, employers, civic clubs, Y. W. C. A.'s, and alumnae groups, these girls relinquished their places in industry for a six-weeks' period, planning to return to them; hoping, no doubt, to take back with them a larger view and a deeper understanding of the problems of women in modern industry.

Three courses, economics, English and physical education, were offered by full-time instructors especially equipped for the work. With one or two exceptions, all the girls took these three courses. Classes met in the morning; in the afternoon there were tennis, swimming, and tutorial sessions for small groups meeting with a tutor to discuss difficult points encountered in study or in class.

The courses of study were adapted as closely as possible to the needs of the girls. This does not mean that the work was made "easy," for the girls were found to be equal to intellectual tasks of a high order. What they lacked in scholastic preparation they made up in native ability and alertness and (at least for the economics work) in practical experience. But when only six weeks' time is to be devoted to a course of study, much care must be given to the choice of material if the maximum gain to the student is to result. Thus, in the course in economics, little time was spent upon the academic theories of value, distribution, exchange, and consumption; and correspondingly more time was given to the position and problems of women in industry, wages and hours of labor in different industries and localities, various schemes of industrial government, and like topics. In the English course the aim was to give practise in clear and convincing expression both in speaking and writing, and to show the student that the understanding and enjoyment of great literature are boons within the reach of anyone who earnestly seeks them. To guide the girls in healthful habits of recreation and to improve their physical condition were the aims of the course in physical education. The *Script*, the girls' class book, records that silhouette photos give evidence of great improvement in the students' posture during the session, that they made an average gain in weight of four pounds, and that many good swimmers and tennis players were discovered and developed.

Yet the class work was not the only form in which education was offered to the girls. The interest aroused in the school made possible for the students many exceptional personal contacts. Zona Gale and William Ellery Leonard were their guests; John R. Commons and other rich personalities were their hosts; Illtyd David of the British W. E. A., Henry Ohl of the Wisconsin State Federation of Labor, Elizabeth Christman of the Womens' Trade Union League, and others, met and talked to the group and were questioned by them. But most valuable of all, perhaps, were the contacts of the girls with one another.

From Greifenkalender, 1925

THE WOMAN IN INDUSTRY

They had come from twenty-five different industries and as many communities; their backgrounds were widely varied; their points of view were correspondingly diverse. The raw material of education was there in abundance, and these girls seized upon it eagerly. They lived in groups of eight or ten in places near the campus, where they might become acquainted with the regular university students, but they were all brought together in their daily classes and for the most part their friendships were formed within their own group. Divergent opinions upon such subjects as the desirability of joining unions and continuance in industry after marriage did not interfere with the growth of a sturdy group loyalty which has continued to develop through correspondence among the girls since the session ended.

In making plans for the second session of the school which will open June 28, the committee in charge have found it necessary to go into the why and wherefore of an educational project of this kind.

Why have such a school? Is it really worth the cost? If it is, wherein lies the worth? In short, what should be the purpose of summer schools for working women?

A meeting of the committee in charge with a number of other interested individuals was held not long ago, at which each one was asked to express his conception of the primary purpose of the school. One held the view that, since education in general is a good thing and should be more widespread, this school should aim merely to do its best to enlarge the intellectual equipment of the girls that attend. Another believed that because a vigorous labor organization among women workers is a crying need of the times, the school should seek to develop leaders for such a movement. Between these extremes various shades of opinion developed.

But there seemed to be substantial agreement on the following points:

1. Women are entering industry in steadily increasing num-

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bers and there is reason to believe that this movement will continue.

2. Throughout the whole of industry, a definite drift may be observed in the direction of larger participation in control on the part of the workers.

3. This participation takes various forms such as trade union agreements, shop committees, employe ownership of stock, but whatever the form, it means an increased need for informed and capable leadership among the workers in industry.

4. Various educational agencies are at work, seeking for and developing this leadership: Brookwood Labor College, the Garment Workers' school in New York city, the Women's Trade Union League school in Chicago, and others, have as their purpose the development of trade union leadership for "company unions"; and through continuation schools, extension courses, labor colleges, and like agencies, workers are offered an opportunity to develop their capacities on their own initiative.

5. A summer session attended by working women has an especially favorable opportunity to start its students in a search for the knowledge and training that will equip them to serve as leaders in their own groups when the need for leadership arises. Six weeks is a short time, but long enough to introduce the determined worker to the tools and materials that she needs to shape the foundation for her training for leadership: to acquire an ability to read with understanding, to state her own ideas clearly and forcefully; to comprehend something of the way in which modern economic society is organized, the place of the working woman in it, and current thought upon the problem of its better control.

This, then, should be the minimum goal of Wisconsin's Summer School for Women Workers.

To achieve this goal, several things are clearly essential.

First, the girls who are to attend the school must be selected with a view to their capacity as leaders. This does not mean that a girl should be rejected because she has not taken the lead in her group so far, but that a certain minimum gift of leadership ought to be in her: a positive personality, an open and eager mind, an ability to learn readily, a willingness to consider her group interests as well as her personal interests.

Bryn Mawr has a director of recruiting who spends most of her time examining candidates, travelling from coast to coast in her quest for the best material. Funds for such an office are not at hand for Wisconsin's school at present; local agencies must be depended upon to choose the girls they will send. No doubt there is some gain in this, as the girls are best known by the people of their own community; but there is surely some loss, for the selection is less likely to be made on the basis of a strictly impartial evaluation of the candidate's abilities. There were a few obvious "misfits" at last summer's session: girls sent by local commities who seemed to have little idea of what would be expected of them. Most of these could have been flagged in advance by a director of recruiting.

Second, the educational program must be built with a view to the achievement of this goal. What subjects of study to include, what method of instruction to use, what types of activity to encourage in addition to the class work —these questions are still to be answered, and the answers must doubtless wait upon several years of experimentation and testing of results. That English and economics are indispensable seems to be an accepted view. What additional subjects, if any, can most profitably be included, is not so generally agreed upon. "Surely social psychology," say some; "by all means industrial history," say others; "a course in scientific method first of all," say still others. Perhaps the best solution is that of Bryn Mawr, where a two-summer course is given, which allows instruction in five or six fields without overwhelming the student with work.

The method of instruction must be adapted to the subject taught. Thus, in the course in economics, much of the material to be analyzed may be drawn from the background of the students. Better than reading assignments are vigorous discussions by the students themselves, each contributing what she can bring out of her own experience. The teacher's place is to guide this interchange of ideas toward the goal of fruitful interpretation of experience; he also must see that time is not consumed by tiresome recounting of irrelevant episodes. It is likely that in studies like industrial history and psychology more dependence must be placed upon books and lectures. But the formal methods of typical university teaching will not serve the purpose of a school of this type. The students are there, not to acquire a college degree or to slip on a thin covering of culture but to learn how they may use their powers in improving the position of women in industry. The process of training their powers must be an active, not a passive one.

Finally, what may be done to help the women who attend the summer school to continue their education after they have returned to the mill or the shop? Without some encouragement and assistance, will not all but the most ardent of them be content with dreaming of the vacation experience, and fail to see that the process of developing their capacities must be continued assiduously in their day-to-day work, if their six weeks of study is to count for anything? These misgivings have come to most of the supporters of the Wisconsin school, and a solution to the problem is yet to be found. Here again observation and experimentation must be carried out over a number of generations of students.

As the summer school grows (the 1926 session will be nearly double the 1925 session in numbers), new questions demand attention. Ought not a special course be given to girls who work under union agreements? Ought not race and language considerations be weighed in choosing the field of study? Why should this opportunity be offered only to women? Is there not the same need for training among the young men who were forced to enter industry before their systematic education had been fairly begun?

To those and many other questions only open-minded flexible experience with workers' education in this country can give answer, and meanwhile, it is in a genuine spirit of experimentation that all the agencies in this rich new field must carry on their work.

JOHN TROXELL

TWO remarkably effective tools for use in the task of real education as opposed to propaganda have been prepared by the New York Federation of Progressive Women. They are eight-page pamphlet questionnaires, Our Economic System and Public Ownership. These primers, as their publishers describe them, "represent an effort to present in brief compass some of the important features of our present industrial order so that the average citizen will be in a better position to judge what should be done about it." In eight pages, divided into twenty odd questions and answers, the progressive women have contrived to say something effective, scholarly, clear and thought-provoking, on two vast and complicated questions. Each primer includes a brief but suggestive bibilography.

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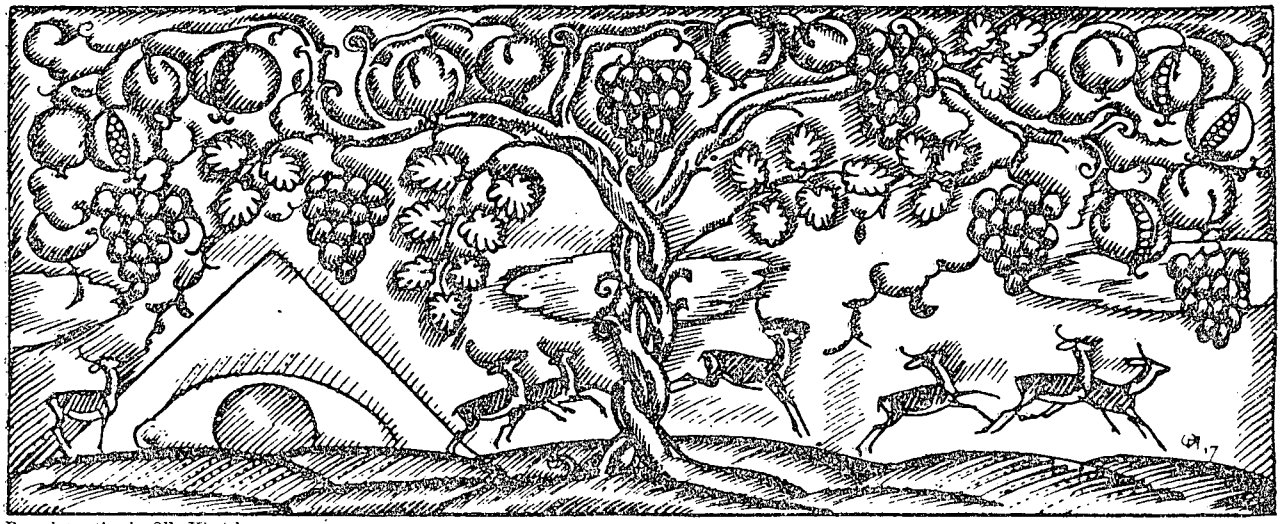

Page decoration by Olla Hjortzberg

LET THERE BE LIGHT

Books in Our Alcove

Edited by Joseph K. Hart

Would "Society" Be Safe if Individuals Were Free?

THOMAS JEFFERSON did not write, in the Declaration of Independence, that "all men are created free." Neither did anyone else. He wrote that men are endowed with certain inalienable "rights," among which is "liberty"; but he did not say that men are born free. He knew too much about history and human experience for that. He knew, and wrote, that men are more likely to do the customary thing than they are to do the innovating and liberating thing. Writing a declaration of independence, for himself and for all who would dare to share his own audacities, he yet clearly saw that he was dealing with a hope, not an achievement; with an adventure, not a state; with a beginning, not with an end.

And the end is still unperceived: freedom, liberty of conduct, independence of mind—these as attributes of the many are of the future: they are the unfinished business of America. The great task of our age, says John A. Hobson, citizen of two continents, is this: to "stimulate, in as many parts of the world as may be, the largest number and variety of *independent thinkers,* constructing and maintaining among them the best conditions of free intercourse and co-operation, and finally enabling their creative thought to play freely in criticism and in reform upon our existing modes of political and economic life. Those who in vague rhetoric dwell on education as the substitute for force and revolution often mean a *doped, standardized and servile education.*

But such education affords no safety in this dangerous world. Free-thinking alone can furnish the energy and the direction"—that we need.

ACCORDINGLY, our question must be turned over: Will Society Be Safe if Individuals Are Not Free? This is the fundamental difficulty in all our social and sociological discussion, today. Even our most advanced sociologists seem not to be able to escape from their secret longings for something they call "social control." Of course, they identify this with the "rule of reason," or something of the sort. None the less, this "reason" always inheres in some particular group in the community: it is their "reason" that is to rule the ranch; all others are to show their "reasonableness" by their submission to this reasonable control. The suggestion that society moves on toward an age of self-governing individuals who will know what they are about, who will cooperate by consent in the common processes of social living, and who will maintain the integrities of their own moral and spiritual lives—such a suggestion, logical as can be, is anathema in almost all quarters. From the local, belated village lost in the medieval mountains, to the most up-to-date campus in the great capitals of the world, with minute shadings of taste and technic, come stories of the imposition of orthodox tests, heresy hunting, the proscription of "dangerous" books and innovating scientific doctrines, and other forms of tampering with the integrities of intellectual craftsmanship. But, says Mr. Hobson, again, these ancient maneuvers surviving from the ages of fear "arouse in us, year by year, a deeper resentment." We are coming to see that what such tamperings mean is simply this:

The past ages have piled up a vast number of *vested rights* which now belong to favored groups: churchmen have the right to tell us what religion is and must be; schoolmen have the right to tell us what education is and must be; the owners of wealth have the right to tell us what incomes we may have, and on what terms; the owners of political machines have the right to tell us how we shall vote; the owners of our respectabilities have the right to tell us how to be moral. Such rights are highly esteemed, but they are always precariously held: they can be maintained only so

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long as we can be made to believe that the past was more intelligent than the present or the future can ever hope to be.

If the human family should ever come to believe that the present has the right to question all ancient "rights," whatsoever, the end of all "vested rights" would be in sight. Free thinking implies and means just that. Hence, to all who profit now by sharing in some "vested right," free thinking is the one great immorality—the ultimate sin against society and all the accumulations that make up society. Hence, at all odds and risks, the freedom of the human mind must be prevented. Hence, anything that throws the free mind "off the track" is a service to the ancient moralities, to the vested past.

Can the human mind ever escape from these tamperings and find its own freedom? Mr. Hobson believes that it can; that it must; that it will.

Will "society" be safe when individual minds are free? Mr. Hobson believes that in no other way can the security of social living be assured. At present we are face to face with the fact that, at every turn, old vested privileges, of every sort, are being maintained, often by means of expert tampering with the integrities of our moral and intellectual craftmanship, and always to the defeat of our free minds; so that many have come to believe that we are not far from the complete ruin of our whole human enterprise. Over against this, the hope of intellectual freedom implies a great risk. But it is the sort of risk that Columbus took when he sailed out into the open ocean in search of the Dreamed and the Unknown: if we lose we are no worse off than at present; if we win, we shall come to new levels of achievement in new worlds of spiritual fulfillment, and we shall have had the joy of adventure all along the way.

J. K. H.

FREE-THOUGHT IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES, *by John A. Hobson. Macmillan. 288 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

Even as the Fruit Flies

THE BIOLOGY OF POPULATION GROWTH, *by Raymond Pearl. Alfred A. Knopf. 260 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THERE are more persons in London or New York city today than lived on an entire continent two hundred years ago. There are as many people now in a single country as were to be found a few centuries ago in all the world. How is this possible? Why were there so few people in earlier times, and why are there so many today? How long can this increase in numbers go on, or will it go on? What are the factors that influence or regulate growth in population? These are problems of prime importance. Actually of comparable importance with the education of our children, for they have to do with the welfare and existence of individuals on this earth even in the rather near future and certainly during the next few generations. Professor Pearl in this fascinating book on population discusses these problems and many more. He not only considers human population from a standpoint of statistics or census reports, but he supplements such considerations with ingenious experimental analysis of the principles of growth in population among lower forms of life.

Professor Pearl begins with a brief discussion of how the individual itself grows, and a comparison of this individual growth in size with growth of the population in numbers. The two phenomena, growth in size and growth in numbers, follow common rules. The growth of experimental populations of fruit flies is carefully analyzed and found to follow very definite mathematical equations, the graphs of which are closely similar to the curves of the growth cycles from human population statistics. All populations are believed to follow what is regarded as the logistic law of population growth.

The author has found that the records of the indigenous native population of Algeria furnish most favorable data for an analysis of certain problems in population growth, and three chapters of the nine composing the book are devoted to this consideration. There is a most thoughtful chapter on the influence of density of population on fertility. Very important data are also supplied on the different birth rates among the several classes of the population, showing the rich to have the lowest rate of production and the poor the highest, with those in comfortable circumstances supplying a middle class number of births. The differential birth rate of the classes leads to a chapter on human behavior and the birth rate, which is probably, in more senses than one, the most provocative section in the book.

In this chapter on human behavior and the birth rate it must be recognized that in supplying records on sex habits the human being often exhibits the widest tendency either to greatly exaggerate, or falsely to minimize the actual extent of his activities. This is a natural consequence of the general taboo placed on the discussion and record of such matters. In spite of these difficulties, Professor Pearl does analyze data which seem to furnish mathematically significant indications that those doing most physical work are most active sexually, while clerical workers are less so, and those in the intellectual professions are the least sexually active of all. In general, it seems probable to Professor Pearl that the birth rate follows these differences in sexual activity.

The point of most surprise to the reviewer is that the growth of human populations does actually follow so closely the same rules of growth which apply to a fruit fly population. This is a striking example of how slightly man's civilization and domestication have tended to free him from the natural rules that apply to wild forms. One may wonder whether this will always be so in regard to population growth. When may some artificial element suddenly upset the population so remarkably as to spoil the logistic curves of growth?

Finally, only a bare idea of the worth of this book can be given in so brief a review. It must be said, without apologies, that Professor Pearl is probably better able to handle in an authoritative manner the subject treated in this book than is any other individual of our scientific population. He has also done the happy thing of presenting the subject in an interesting and easily readable form, and furthermore, in such a manner as to be truly educational to the wide public which it is sincerely hoped may read this important book.

CHARLES R. STOCKARD

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Experience and Nature

A Running Commentary on John Dewey's Masterpiece

V. What Is Science?

IN the course of the day's experiences, most people come upon traces of two distinctive realms that seem to be separated by great planes of cleavage. The realm of art is characterized by objects that are ends in themselves: fulfillments of desire, realizations of longing, consummations of beauty—all hinting of an existence that is self-sufficient and permanent. The realm of industry, on the other hand, is characterized by objects called tools: useful instruments without value in themselves, valuable only as means to ends beyond themselves, and telling, all too eloquently, of an existence that is deficient, incomplete, changing—the haunt of endless and sordid toils. Few of us have missed glimpses of both these realms, though many of us affect to be able to distinguish but one of them.

The unlikenesses of these two realms has probably been implicitly sensed from immemorial times by the observant; but the Greeks first set them apart in a conscious way, assuming that these differentiated experiences implied that the two realms—of art and of industry—were metaphysically distinct, an argument now almost universally urged by the superficial, and used by many modern "arbiters of taste" as the basis of various metaphysical virtues. The real interrelationships of these two areas—so invidiously construed through the ages—will not detain us, here. We turn, instead, to certain results which the Greeks extracted from these facts of our everyday experiences.

The Greek artist used tools, working his will upon "base matter," even as did the artisan. The casual operations of the two did not greatly differ. But the finished object which the artist gave the world was an end in itself: it suggested no further activity—nothing but contemplation and enjoyment.

The artisan (farmer, builder, navigator), on the other hand, was engaged with vast ranges of uncertainty: a crop must be raised, so the farmer must have an eye to the weather and the soils; a boat must be navigated, so the sailor must have an eye to the winds and the tides; a house must be constructed, so the builder must have an eye to materials and foundations. The artisan must be careful of a thousand matters—the artist of but one.

Now, it can be argued that *thinking* was more likely to arise out of the activities of the artisan than out of those of the artist, since, in the long run, the artisan is compelled to attend to limitless sequences of uncertain experiences: he must consider "causes and effects" under innumerable conditions of life and work. But, such an argument implies that *thinking* is concerned with tools and their uses; that is, with making an incomplete world more nearly complete; in short, with practical matters. Such an implication was repugnant to the Greeks (with a few exceptions) and to all "idealists" ever since. *Thought,* as the highest activity of man, must deal with only the noblest phases of the world: it must envisage the world, not help to create it; it must contemplate reality, not lose itself in action.

To the Greek objects of beauty are part of the Real Being of the world; but objects of mere use do not share this Real Being. No one *enjoys* or *contemplates* a tool: he merely *senses* it in its uses. Enjoyment and contemplation are reserved for objects of beauty. Hence, only objects of beauty can be fully known: contemplative reason is identical with that esthetic contemplation which absorbs beauty.

Hence, also, true knowledge, i. é., science, was concerned not with trial, manipulation, experiment and reconstruction, but with objects of contemplation. Even the "atom" of the physicist was ultimately a finished, self-sufficient, beautiful affair. Aristotle did not experiment: he contemplated nature, and generalized his contemplations into final, changeless forms of Being.

Science, therefore, to the Greeks, belonged in the realm of the artist. Scientific thought was contemplation. The Real World was an object of art. God was the Perfect Artist. True knowledge was information about ultimate things. Science was an artist's picture of The Real World.

This is not science, today. Modern science has risen not out of the "thoughts" of the artist, but out of the "taking thought" of the artisan. So the Greeks did not discover science, as we know it.

None the less, they did discover the *idea* of science: they discovered *intelligence.* They escaped from the limitations of both artist and artisan; they found the higher levels of *thinking;* and they added this as a new dimension to human living. They freed "cause and effect" from immediate experience, generalized the idea, and so discovered knowledge—the basic substance of science. They discovered *thinking*—a discovery antecedently necessary to later discoveries.

Every art has its appropriate method; every artisan his proper technic: but *thinking* is the method of methods, the technic of all technics. Science is the complete release of this method of all methods: it includes attentive observation; careful making of hypotheses; controlled experimenting; disciplined judgment as to results—these all being taken over from the technic of the artisan.

But it also includes that reconstructive contemplation of experience, by means of which the whole absorbs and assimilates each newly emergent element or part, finding itself re-made in the process; so that experience becomes momentarily, now and again, a self-sustaining, satisfying realm of Reality and Beauty. This is the contribution of the artist to the methods of the scientist.

And, in these two contributions, we may, haply, find a hint of the real relationships of those two seemingly disparate realms of experience: Use and Beauty.

EXPERIENCE AND NATURE, *by John Dewey. Open Court Publishing Co. 443 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

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Competition, Sweetness and Light

PUBLIC REGULATION OF COMPETITIVE PRACTICES. *National Industrial Conference Board. 281 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

FOR some decades now our government has been engaged in an effort to foster and buttress a competitive system once regarded as automatically self-regulating. The Interstate Commerce, the Sherman, the Clayton, and the Federal Trade Commission Acts had this avowed purpose. At first, our aim was simply to prevent monopolies, the bad boys of capitalism. But with the decay of trade morals, and the failure of the common law doctrines to reach the new types of unethical or uneconomical practices, we were led to direct supervision of the competitive process. We no longer trusted in natural law, unaided. We sought to make effective our ideal: that competition is a selective process to facilitate the survival of the most efficient.

If the game were only played fair, it was said, everything would take care of itself. The remedy proposed was a simple one: a statutory declaration prohibiting "unfair competition" and the organization of a national commission to enforce the prohibition. The 1914 legislation—the Clayton and the Federal Trade Commission Acts—was aimed at those practices which had "the effect of enabling producers to secure trade and survive upon some basis other than industrial efficiency and economical management." To the eighteenth century view of life, an honest, efficient administration by the Federal Trade Commission would secure ethical conduct of business. The Commission, however, was given no power to enforce its orders.

The National Industrial Conference Board has published a report on the regulation of competitive practices as the second of its studies in public policy toward business. This thorough piece of research was done by Myron W. Watkins and assistants. It embraces a careful study of the administration of the Federal Trade Commission.

The Commission was originally conceived "as an administrative tribunal for checking predatory aggression by trusts, or monopolistic combinations against small-scale, independent business establishments." Its principal function has been to serve as the guardian of competition. In protecting us from "unfair competition" it decides against practices because they are either against good morals or public policy. Its prohibitions have been directed chiefly against certain bargaining activities of business men; price, sales promotion, or trade relations policies. In many ways, free enterprise has been restricted in the interests of communal welfare and competition.

This report analyzes with considerable detail the orders of the Commission in each of these three fields. It presents discussions of the cases on such issues as less-than-cost selling, price discrimination, resale price maintenance, basing point price system, deceit in advertising, misbranding, and the combative tactics of competitors, including tying contracts, and bogus independents. The judicial decisions reviewing the orders are also taken up. A valuable appendix gives a summary record of the proceedings of the Commission to June 30, 1924.

What has the Federal Trade Commission really accomplished? Since 1915 it received 8,632 requests for action, of which less than half (3,591) were the subjects of formal application for complaint. After a preliminary investigation, 2,058 cases were dismissed, leaving only 1,197 in which formal complaints were issued. In all, 933 complaints were adjudicated. There were issued 635 orders to "cease and desist," distributed as follows: misrepresentation, 272; commercial bribery, 175; harassing tactics, 21; Clayton Act violations, 52; conspiracy, 23; trade mark simulation, 38; all others, 54. Surely, this is not a record of which one can boast, nor of which business need be afraid.

Steeped in the ideology of laissez-faire, this report takes the side of the present majority of the Commission, whose policies are regarded by many as less strict in enforcing the law. Mr. Watkins and his associates say that the Commission attempted to decide many cases not really affected with a public interest; that its public program was unfair to many honest firms; that it undertook to enforce the Sherman Anti-Trust Act; that its administration was not expeditious; and that most of its orders were directed against small establishments. They urge a limitation to its powers. They ask for another "rule of reason." They do not believe that all "unfair competition" is against public policy, and they plead for an "administrative regulation" instead of a "coercive regulation."

This book shows, among many other things, how sharp American business men may become under the spur of the competitive process. As with the Sherman Act there is a constant race between the enforcing officers and the disingenuousness which the urge for private profit brings out. Mr. Watkins, however, would not agree with this statement. He thinks that a "more chivalrous competition" now exists, the result largely of a spontaneous conversion of business, and not of the prophylactic action of the Federal Trade Commission. This report does not deprecate the work of the Commission. But the faith of the National Industrial Conference Board is still placed in the old idol: the self-regulation of the competitive system of business enterprise.

MAURICE GREER SMITH

Hooray for Colic

PYGMALION, OR THE DOCTOR OF THE FUTURE. *by R. M. Wilson. E. P. Dutton & Co. 67 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE physician of the future, of course will think of his science and art as that of the "whole universe of knowledge, of emotion and of reaction." In fact he does the same today, but he has a pretty rough time separating knowledge from half truths and then absorbing it. It is well to have emphasis shift from the competitive biological attacks of bacteria and their ills to the assaults or buffets of material and spiritual things. Let us, with Wilson, cast off the gloomy significance of the word disease and face with joy and sportsmanship the game of reactions of which our lives consist. Happy he who writhing in the throes of an attack of green apples can soothe himself with the thought that he is properly and normally reaching to violent stimulations. Horray for colic, is to be the baby's slogan—thus do we of the nursery drink deep of the realities of life. "A symptom means for us a reaction to life" and that is an end of pathognomonic signs.

The doctor of the future will carry a bigger bottle of Hope and less of the wormwood of his predecessors. Esprit de corps rather than *spiritus frumenti* will be quite in accord with American practice.

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Dr. Wilson sees the future patient treated as we now reat sunburn, because the physician will be the fortunate ɔossessor of the secret of toughening or assuaging the ir-itability of personalities.

Perhaps. Surely the Future is a long word and we can ıfford to wait. Meanwhile here's hoping! H. E.

The Scientific Scrutiny of Social Facts

THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF HUMAN SOCIETY, *by Franklin H. Giddings. The University of North Carolina Press. 247 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE inception of the modern scientific movement is often referred to Francis Bacon. His Novum Organum, published in 1620, "has done, perhaps, as much as any other single work toward inculcating into science the spirit of unbiased, accurate and careful observation and experimentation." But it was in the role of a torch-bearer, rather than as an experimentalist, that Bacon made his chief contribution toward the scientific understanding of the physical universe. It is a somewhat similar role that has been and is being played by Franklin H. Giddings today. During our own generation social science has been emerging from metaphysical obscurantism analogous to that which surrounded physical phenomena in the middle ages. Giddings' position as the recognized dean of living socioligists is unchallenged because more than any other man he has carried the viewpoints of science into the field of human relationships, putting theological and metaphysical hobgoblins on the road to evaporation. The precise methods, categories and forms under which this task will ultimately be completed have in all probability not yet been developed by Giddings or anyone else. Any exposition of scientific method in the field of social relationships must still be regarded as a report on progress. Yet Giddings has built foundations, and what is more important has imparted his concept of a *science of society* to students and followers everywhere who are carrying forward bit by bit the detailed elevation of the structure.

In the present book, the author brings together a statement of the methods and the results of social experimentation which has gone forward with his classroom as a laboratory and with his students as subjects and assistants for a period of many years. It is indubitably shown that scientific generalizations of importance can be drawn from such data by the methods used. While some discussion of statistical principles enters, however, the book is not a treatise on statistics. In large part it could be more accurately described as a treatise on the philosophy of scientific method in the field of sociology. Many readers, hitherto unacquainted with Giddings' incisive logical thinking and uninterested in the formulation of fundamental sociological problems, will find much in it that is without meaning to them. Sociological factors, concepts and groupings of various familiar sorts are defined and classified with such elaborate precision as to bewilder the practical minded persons whose daily mental absorbtions are with concrete situations.

This is nevertheless a book that should be read and reread by social workers. Chapter III on The Scientific Scrutiny of Societal Facts might well be self-imposed as required reading for the staff of every social agency. For "our social workers and our uplift organizations do not know what results they are getting and by what methods they are getting them, in the same rigorous sense in which a well-managed business corporation knows what it is getting out of its personnel, its machines and its methods." Yet the demand for rigorous scientific self-examination by such organizations is not designed to subject humanitarian effort to a cold intellectualism, for "it will be discovered one day that the chief value of social science, far from being academic, is moral."

A second chapter of outstanding value for social workers will be that on The Study of Cases. Not that any hints will necessarily be given regarding the particular solution of particular problems. Rather will it assist in giving orientation to the entire task in which they are engaged. This is after all, thinks the author, "the most substantial and important service of sociology to social workers. It cannot give them rules of technique; those must be developed out of trial and error experimenting. But sociology can give them, and should give them, poise and balance, a comprehensive view, a sense of relative values, an apprehension of proportions and of probabilities." The present volume will itself do just these things for the social technician who has faith in the mutability of social situations, and who is seeking for means by which his faith may be verified.

Dartmouth College STUART A. RICE

How Mary Putnam Did It

LIFE AND LETTERS OF MARY PUTNAM JACOBI, *edited by Ruth Putnam. Putnam's. 381 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

TO have first won, after long and tactful siege, the right for a woman to study in the great Paris School of Medicine, is the feminist feat most often associated with the name of Mary Putnam Jacobi. Yet it is not as a doctrinaire feminist, but as a human and lovably energetic child and girl that she stands out in the memoir which prefaces the letters of this volume and in the letters themselves. Only her immense fund of vitality and her single-hearted determination could have carried a young student through the series of rebuffs and the endless succession of examinations, to say nothing of the magazine and newspaper articles on the side which supported her during her six years in Paris, years which included the winter of the Prussian siege, the Communist occupation, and the terror which preceded the capture of the city by Thiers.

Interesting as are her descriptions of the events which made history, it is rather the homely details of her fireless attic room with the brick floor, of the makeshifts to fit herself out for a grand reception, of her carefully planned costume for the great public examination, and such personal trifles that give color to the story. Ruth Putnam has supplied a charming background in her story of the large Putnam family (Mary was the eldest of eleven) and its homes in Staten Island, New York and Yonkers during Mary's childhood. It is regrettable that the years from Mary Putnam's return to this country in 1872 till her death in 1906 should have been slipped over in the two short chapters. Surely the difficulties of a woman who was intent upon establishing herself in any profession in the seventies were not ended when, at thirty, she returned to New York with the diploma of the world's leading medical school. They must have been complicated still further by her determination to marry and still to continue that profession. It is tantalizing to have curtain drawn when the play was just beginning. M. R.

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Smoothing Out Employment

THE REGULARIZATION OF EMPLOYMENT, *by H. Feldman. Harpers. 437 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THAT unemployment, both of men and of capital, is to a large extent unnecessary; that its evils are therefore largely eradicable, and that the responsibility for eradicating them rests largely with the managers of business, are Professor Feldman's outstanding conclusions in this book.

Students of industrial problems ought to hail this book with enthusiasm, for it is scholarly and informing with respect to a complex and tremendously important matter; all this with a simplicity and directness of style that makes the discussion readable throughout. But if the book proves interesting to students, it ought to be nothing short of fascinating to labor leaders and industrial executives, for it describes in detail the methods by which the most imaginative and resourceful of the directors of industry have been able to go far toward smoothing out their production curves and establishing their industries on a basis of approximate regularity throughout the year. It is no simple and easy way out that is offered to the manufacturer with a seasonal industry. The method suggested is analysis of the most painstaking sort, both within and without the industry. It calls for an intensive study of sales, market possibilities, the trends of business, manufacturing methods, industrial relations. And then it requires the development of policies suited to the conditions disclosed.

The general principles laid down by Professor Feldman are not new. He is able to cite a considerable body of experience in support of all of them. Furthermore, they have all been discussed to some extent before in books and periodicals. But this is the first time that a competent student of the question has made it his business to examine these principles in the light of experience and to bring together in one place a general treatise on regulation. Discussion hitherto has involved the experience of one or at best a few industrial concerns. Professor Feldman presents the experience of many business organizations, including all that are most advanced with respect to regularizing their products, basing his statements on correspondence, interviews and direct investigations.

What he has to contribute as a result of his studies is indicated clearly enough by some of the chapter headings: Control of Demand Through Research, Diversifying the Output, Changing Customary Purchasing Habits, Scientific Sales Planning, Planning Production Within the Plant, Labor Policies that Steady Employment, etc. A concluding section deals with Social and Governmental Remedies. Here long range planning and unemployment insurance are discussed.

As these titles indicate, the way to regularization suggested is through scientific method in manufacturing and selling the product. These go hand in hand. If the peril of seasonality is to be banished, the manufacturer must find new ways to keep his machinery running, either by finding new products that can be made with the same machinery, which can be sold in what has been the dull season, or by manufacturing for stock, or by inducing his customers to buy out of season as well as in season. Probably he must do all of these things.

The concluding section includes a discussion of American experiments with unemployment insurance. The most striking thing about the funds advanced by the employer alone is that regularization has generally preceded their establishment. In the best known cases, therefore, little or nothing has to be paid out of the fund. This is as it should be, of course, but it shows how little dependence can be placed upon voluntary funds as a remedy. Hope lies rather in regularization. It is not to be assumed, however, that regularization will ever become the common experience. It is only where there are business men of exceptional ability that we may expect such results. They alone have the imagination and the ability to bring it to pass. Unemployment insurance may still be looked to, therefore, both as a stimulus to regularization and as a needed defense to those workers whose employers find themselves incapable of providing continuous employment.

Not the least interesting and valuable is Professor Feldman's discussion of industrial relations. The necessity for intelligent personnel organization is made clear. On the other hand, he shows what an opportunity the movement for regularization has given to the unions to assist in bringing it to pass. Few of the unions have as yet fully recognized this opportunity, but the author calls attention to the machinists and their arrangement with the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, and some of the activities of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers. These are promising beginnings.

JOHN A. FITCH

New York School of Social Work.

High Jinks of Hygiene

BYWAYS TO HEALTH, *by Thomas D. Wood and Theresa Dansdill. D. Appleton & Co. 198 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

HERE is sugarcoating to the nth degree. You remember the naive reply of the school girl to her mother when asked what she learned in the nutrition class, "Why we sing a song and eat a carrot." 'Tis well we keep our sense of humor amid the salesmanship of health propaganda. While Uncle Sam's little Indian wards sing of the beauties of milk and have only coffee offered them, we must smile at our own enthusiasms and rejoice in the panaceas of other generations.

This book is a delight. It will broaden the reading public of health and be as appropriate a source of jingle jangles as ever Poor Richard's Almanac was of platitudes. Sound physiology, good philosophy and quite up to date psychology and what more can one ask.

It is hard to find a flaw in the teaching, and many a body blow is dealt by innuendo, and bubbles are burst by laughter, among the myths of kitchen sanitation and meditation of olden times.

The spirit of modern America scampers through the pages and we rejoice in the frank advertisment of Uncle Henry which epitomizes the best possibilities of a motorized existence.

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He bought him a flivver
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H. E.

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COMMUNICATIONS

Scant Compensation for Coal Miners

To THE EDITOR: We are interested in Miss Roller's article Wilkes-Barre: An Anthracite Town in the February 1 issue. She has told her story very well on the whole, but because of the present crisis in the coal industry and the paucity of facts in regard to this industry, it seems too bad to leave unchallenged her statement that "compensation for accidents and injury is generous as industrial compensation goes."

For years the miners and others have been endeavoring to secure a good compensation award, but so far in vain. Pennsylvania, with a $12 maximum weekly limit and a non-compensated waiting period of ten days, is showing a disgraceful unconcern for the large number of her injured workers, many of whom are miners.

With a very few exceptions, a seven-day waiting period has been written into the laws of the various states. And as to awards, thirty-five states, to the writer's knowledge, have higher awards than the rich state of Pennsylvania. We in Pennsylvania look over to New York with its $20 maximum weekly, soon to be raised to $25 if the new compensation bill advocated by Governor Smith goes through, with more than a bit of shame.

Executive Secretary, Consumers' League of Eastern Pennsylvania, Philadelphia A. ESTELLE LAUDER.

The Neediest Cases

To THE EDITOR: Your Thousands for Relief article under the Common Welfare, page 472 in the January issue of The Survey raises several interesting questions:

Would newspapers print analytical studies of the causes of poverty underlying "the neediest cases" in place of the cases themselves?

Would the general public not specially interested in social work—the group for whom these cases are admittedly written—read such educational articles if they were printed?

In view of increasingly scientific methods of social work is not the newspaper psychologically sound in demanding occasional case stories from social agencies in order to keep the proper human balance?

Is not the proper method of educational publicity through personal contacts and follow-up work done with donors, rather than through the use of newspaper columns?

Are not social agencies in New York and elsewhere doing this valuable follow-up educational work?

Some of our own answers to these questions are:

That the case story is not only necessary to the social agency but highly desirable.

That among our best volunteers are those whose interest was first aroused at Christmas time through some such "neediest cases" publicity.

That the use of "neediest cases" at Christmas time is our best *means* of interpreting service to the general public, accomplished by *beginning* with *relief* and following later with the report on the *service* that accompanied it.

With great reluctance we gave up the use of "neediest cases" in 1919 when the Community Fund was organized in Cleveland, our reluctance due not to the loss of the money, but of valuable publicity. In the Christmas just passed we revived them, appealing not directly for money but offering opportunities for service to those wishing to do something extra at Christmas time and who planned with our families and provided for them special types of Christmas celebration not available through general funds. The result was most satisfactory.

We do not presume to have achieved an ideal Christmas in

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The Bank of Many Depositors

Is growing in resources every day.

Already a success the measure of its future progress will be the increased service it can render its depositors.

And this service can increase in efficiency and scope just in proportions as the number of its depositors increase.

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Cleveland, but with a well organized Community Christmas, a widely used Christmas Clearing House and cooperation of all the newspapers, we have much to be thankful for. Certainly having experienced Christmas with "neediest cases," then a barren period without them, and now with their revival in modified form not conflicting with the Community Fund, nothing I am sure could persuade us to give them up again, except the newspapers' refusal to use them!

Publicity Secretary, Associated Charities of Cleveland — ANNA B. BEATTIE.

The Pueblo Titles

TO THE EDITOR: My attention has been called to an editorial in your December issue, in which the writer speaks of the Pueblo Indians of New Mexico and the Pueblo Land Act of June 7, 1924. Your editorial writer, and through him your readers, have been curiously misinformed both as to the provisions of the Pueblo Lands Bill and as to the so-called Pueblo "council." May I, therefore, call your attention to the following facts?

First, the Pueblo Lands bill provides that the Attorney-General of the United States shall bring the suits to quiet title respecting all lands the title to which is held by the Pueblo Lands Board (established by the bill) to be "unextinguished." The so-called council has nothing to do with it.

Second, the bill provides that independent suits may be brought for each separate Pueblo as to lands the title to which is held by the Pueblo Lands Board to have been "extinguished." The "council" has nothing to do with this matter either. Such suits must be brought, probably, by the United States of America as guardian of these Indians.

Third, the bill also permits each Pueblo—not the Pueblo "council"—to employ counsel, with the wise provision, however, that any agreement to pay money to such counsel must have the approval of the Secretary of the Interior. There is already provided at the expense of the United States, under the Department of the Interior, an attorney for the Pueblo Indians, Walter C. Cochrane, whose first responsibility is to bring such suits.

Fourth, the Pueblo Lands Board, established by the bill, consists of the Attorney-General, the Secretary of the Interior, each of whom may act through an assistant, and a third member appointed by the President of the United States. The duty of the Board is to investigate and report to the Attorney-General respecting all lands the title to which is in dispute. The decisions of the Board, extinguishing Pueblo titles, must be unanimous.

Thus, it is evident that the All-Pueblo Council has no standing whatever in connection with the land title business. And it has no relation at all with the ancient culture of the Pueblo tribes. Each tribe was a separate entity. The only instance of concerted action is the Pueblo rebellion of 1680, when they drove out the first Spanish settlement of New Mexico. But this unity of action had so little meaning for them, that they at once fell apart again and the Spaniards came back a few years later and reconquered and held the country. There is no historical evidence whatever that there was an "All-Pueblo Council" meeting in connection with the 1680 uprising.

The "council" which is now being taken about the country for publicity purposes was suggested to these Indians by some of their white friends who were fighting against the passage of the Bursum Bill. It held its first meeting late in the year 1923. At that time it had a certain meaning and serious intent. In the beginning it may have been an honest attempt to introduce a democratic form of procedure and to unite by a common interest nineteen self sufficient and separate entities. Now, the best singers and dancers from certain Pueblos are chosen to give a good "act," and are advertised as the "All-Pueblo Council."

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I am curious to know where your informant has discovered 1,500 suits pending or impending. But regardless of the number of these suits, it is certain that the Pueblo Council whether at home or on tour has nothing whatever to say or do in connection with these suits. AMELIA E. WHITE

Secretary Eastern Association on Indian Affairs, Inc., New York.

TO THE EDITOR: Miss A. E. White's letter is an achievement in inaccuracy. The subject is important because the long struggle of the Pueblo Indians to obtain, not full justice but a subsistence minimum on their ancient lands, has drawn to a climax. Left uncorrected, Miss White's statement would undermine confidence in their own statement of their case.

1. *Concerning the All-Pueblo Council.* It was formed in 1922 (not in 1923). It consists exclusively of delegates chosen and instructed by the traditional governing authority of the several tribes. There are twenty New Mexico Pueblos and nineteen of these are continuous members of the Council. The exception, Laguna, is an intermittent member. The Council meets on call of its permanent chairman (Sotero Ortiz of San Juan Pueblo) or of any constituent Pueblo. It is essentially a cooperative union—the tribal autonomy of the several Pueblos is not diminished by it. Voting is by Pueblo units, though frequently as many as eighty delegates attend the called meetings.

In the protracted legislative struggle preceding the enactment of the Pueblo Lands Act in 1924, this Council articulated and promoted the wishes of the Pueblos. Through that struggle, across two sessions of Congress, from a time eight weeks after the struggle began, Miss White's Eastern Association on Indian Affairs was a leading advocate against the Council and against the Pueblos.

In 1924, after the Lands Act became operative, the Council at a called public session voted that the help of attorneys directly and exclusively responsible to the Pueblos was needful. Thereupon, seventeen of the Pueblos petitioned for this legal aid, which was provided by the Indian Defense Associations and will be provided to the end at no cost to the Pueblos.

In May, 1924, and again in August, 1925, the All-Pueblo Council met and issued appeals to Congress and to the public for help in the maintenance of religious liberty and tribal self-government. In October and in November, 1925, the Council met to consider important questions of citizenship and of taxation. Briefly, as everyone acquainted with Pueblo life knows, the Council is a permanent and increasing factor in that life. Its activity has never lapsed, there has never been a factional division in it, and its variety of uses will be increased in the troublous months ahead.

The Indians who went to California were the chairman of the All-Pueblo Council, its secretary, and ten others delegated by the governors and councils of those Pueblos most in distress —the Pueblos north of Santa Fé. They carried a twofold plea—the plea of their individual Pueblos and of the All-Pueblo Council. The plea was for legal aid in the recovery of their lands, and for political aid in the preservation of their religious and cultural liberty. Each of the twelve delegates made heavy sacrifices to go on this trip; and none received a dollar of payment from any source. They were doing instructed Pueblo public service and such service can never be paid for. Those who met and heard these Indians can judge whether they knew what they were about.

2. *Concerning the Pueblo Lands Act.* Miss White's letter is designed to suggest that legal aid, other than that which the government already provides, is not needed by the Pueblos. In so far, its effect is to discourage contributions of money to that cause.

The Act in express terms authorizes the Pueblos to use private counsel. The independent suits referred to in "Third"

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of Miss White's letter, are explicitly made the task of such private counsel. It is through these independent suits, and in no other way, that the Pueblos can appeal from the findings of the Lands Board whose effect, in the absence of appeal, is to extinguish the Pueblo title.

The Lands Board is not organized as a judicial tribunal. At the same time its acts have judicial effect; they automatically cause the extinguishment of the Pueblo title if independent suit be not filed within two years. The necessity of the suits, and of counsel to prosecute them, is apparent. The private counsel have other functions, absolutely vital, stated or implied in the Act: the conduct of appeals in matters of governmental liability for compensation and amounts of compensation. Likewise they function in the Board's daily hearings, in the preparation of evidence, cross-examination of witnesses, etc. All this is of record; but it is enough to quote the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, Mr. Burke, under date Jan. 28, 1926: "I am on record officially as favoring the Pueblos having special (private) counsel, and still favor it so long as it does not involve them in expense." The counsel, Messrs. Hanna and Wilson of Albuquerque, are provided without expense to the Pueblos by the Indian Defense Associations.

Miss White asks about the 3,500 cases. The actual number is a little short of 4,000. The test cases which must be brought by the Pueblos through private counsel will, in the event of a favorable outcome, have conclusive effect on every one of these several thousand cases. The Pueblos' independent suits must, under the law, be suits in ejectment; as such, wherever brought, they must be brought against each separate adverse claimant one by one.

The Mr. Cochrane whom Miss White refers to is doing excellent service. But not merely can he not and will he not prosecute the independent suits for the Pueblos; but in addition (a fact apparently not known to Miss White), it is not Mr. Cochrane nor even his department of the government which under the Act is charged with the prosecution of the suits to quiet title to the Pueblos. These suits, dealing with a small fraction of the contested values at Tesuque Pueblo (the first Pueblo dealt with by the Lands Board) have already been filed; the attorney is George A. B. Frazier, and he represents the Department of Justice, not the Bureau of Indian Affairs.

There has been some mystery as to why various parties were hostile to the provision of independent counsel to the Pueblos. Not seeking to resolve the mystery, I will make this statement: For some months it has been commonly known that the Pueblo Lands Board has in effect amended the Act through construction; that it has imported into the Act of Congress the statutes of limitation and of adverse possession of the territory and state of New Mexico, with the effect of substituting these New Mexico definitions for the definitions of Congress. It has been known that the effect of this construction would be highly injurious to the Pueblos. At first the Lands Board refused, in writing, to divulge its construction of the Act. It has now announced its construction, which proves to be as stated above.

The Act within itself contains no provision for a court review of the Land Board's findings on questions of title—including this all-important question of construction. The government itself cannot, under the terms of the Act, secure this court review on behalf of the Indians. Such is the Act's peculiarity. Review can be had only in one way—through the independent suits brought by the private counsel of the Pueblos. So it develops that, with their very existence at stake, only through independent suits by private counsel can the Pueblos obtain their day in court.

JOHN COLLIER
Executive Secretary, American Indian Defense Association, Inc., Washington, D. C.

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THE SOCIAL WORK SHOP

The Conference Complex

FOR several years the opinion has been developing in my mind—if any—that one of the outstanding needs of the present social era is a thorough study of our national, state, district, city, allied group, and other conferences. Social workers to whom I have mentioned the issue have usually blithely dismissed it, either with the remark that I would take all the joy out of social work or—that I have a conference complex.

That may be a sufficient answer, but figures and facts seem called for in response to these queries: How many conferences, conventions, councils, committee meetings, and institutes—national and state—convene each year for a consideration of social problems and technique? Are others needed? Should any existing conference activities be eliminated, reorganized, or combined? Should an analysis of present programs precede future meetings?

How many conferences does the average social worker attend annually? Do some workers go too frequently? Do some go unnecessarily often? What principle determines conference attendance?

Does the conference goer make thereby demonstrable concrete gains in job efficiency? Is there a relation between the necessity of repeated conference attendance, on the one hand, and the preliminary training and educational background of an individual, on the other? Would more technical reading and longer vacations decrease the number of group conferences? Are the various communities served more effectively where conference attendance is general and frequent?

Is there a relation between personnel turnover and conference attendance?

Do the workers who are in most need of skill and inspiration, go the most? Who needs a conference the most—board members, students, workers, executives? Can the same type of conference serve them all? Should compulsory conference attendance be urged? Is the frequent participation of the executive group in conferences more to be desired than the less frequent attendance of a larger group of subordinates?

What percentage of the cost of conference attendance is borne by those who attend? What percentage by the contributing public? Do other professional groups follow the same general plan? What is the total annual conference cost to the country?

Are national, state, and allied group programs cleared? Should they be cleared? Is there any governing principle underlying the selection of conference topics? Of conference speakers? How often is it desirable to discuss the same topic? Should there be an effort to discourage discussion of thoroughly accepted principles? Of theories to be tried next year in Greenville? Do we need separate conferences for elementary, intermediate, and advanced workers?

Do social workers confer oftener than other professional groups? Does the intricate and diverse field of social work create unusual needs and opportunities for conference? Or does this intricacy and diversity indicate the inadequacy of present conference programs as media of standardization and advancement?

Perhaps it may be easy for the one who never misses a conference—or a conference session—to answer a fool according to his folly. Perhaps, therefore, we should have some conference papers on the propositions presented here. And after that may I again move for a survey?

JUNE PURCELL-GUILD

Who's Who in the Symposium

JUNE PURCELL-GUILD, *who leads the discussion, recently resigned as assistant professor of applied sociology, University of the City of Toledo, to accompany her husband to Richmond, Virginia, where he is director of the Community Fund*

GERTRUDE VAILE *is president of the National Conference of Social Work*

HOWARD R. KNIGHT *is executive secretary of the Ohio Welfare Conference and chairman of the annual meeting of state conference secretaries*

ANITA ELDRIDGE *is executive secretary of the California Conference of Social Work, the largest of the state conferences*

W. I. COOPER *is a member of the board of directors of the Family Society of Philadelphia*

What is *your* opinion? Write a letter to *The Survey*

Better Group Thinking

MRS. GUILD, with her "conference complex," has given us a fine and timely challenge in her rapid fire of questions. I think we need some conferences on conferences to answer them—which suggests my answer to one of her questions. We may indeed have some conferences that should be eliminated, but there are probably even more that we still need. I think the number of conferences will continue to increase rather than diminish.

This seems to me probable because we have now reached an era in civilization in which further social progress is largely dependent upon our ability to develop group thinking, group leadership, united efforts for purposes conceived in common.

All the way from the little neighborhood guild up to the League of Nations the great problem of democracy is to develop this power to think together, to create ideas and ideals through the interaction of many minds.

We social workers who are much concerned about the technique of our task in various aspects have particular need to be concerned about the technique of conferences, more so indeed than any other profession because our profession is more closely related than any other to the lay pub-

Help Build This Department

The Social Work Shop, a new department, edited by John D. Kenderdine, makes its debut with this issue. It is designed to be of practical assistance to the executive and staff member on the daily job. It will be serviceable only in so far as *you* help by sending in contributions and suggestions.

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lic. We can practice our profession successfully only as it is a vital part of the general life and thought of the community.

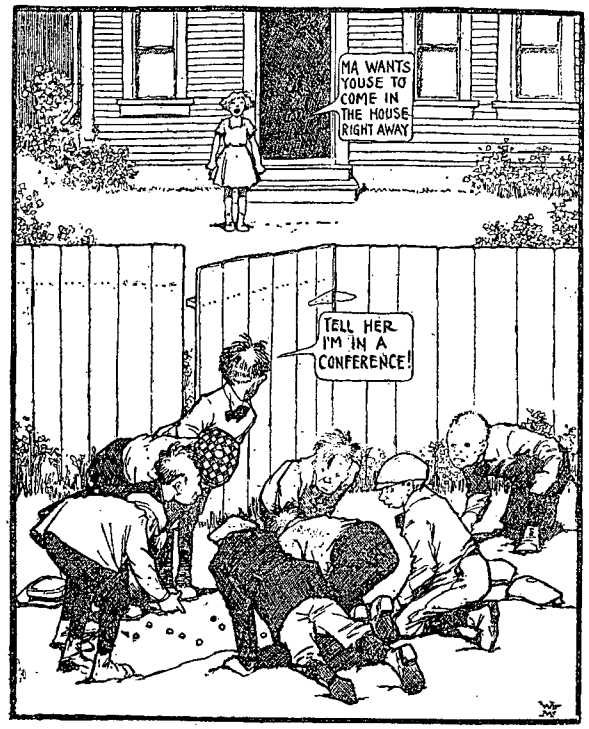
Better preliminary training and more technical reading will not, I believe, decrease the number of conferences needed, but it will enormously enrich them and increase their value as better equipped minds are brought to bear upon the matters under consideration. I would suggest that one of the improvements needed in conference technique is a greater preparation of thought on the part of those who attend. A thoughtful consideration of the advance program of division meetings of the National Conference, for instance, in order to think out what the reader may hope to receive or may have to contribute on those subjects might add a good deal to the value of the discussions.

GERTRUDE VAILE

Budgets and Backbones

AS a board member, I confess to a feeling of opposition when traveling expenses to a conference appear on a budget. It means time off in addition to vacation time, and I expect the superintendent to show that the conferee will distinctly benefit, and that through him (or her), the work of the society will distinctly improve.

I once attended a national conference, where addresses were made to perhaps a thousand persons in a great hall—and I thought ineffectively made. I also once addressed a state conference myself, and I know that was ineffective. On the other hand, a bright and practical social worker tells me that she has profited by conferences, and that she believes that they develop cooperation, better methods of work, and mutual understanding.



Winsor McCay © The New York Tribune, Inc.

"IN CONFERENCE"

It does not seem to me to be a case for another survey, but rather for authorities with backbone to say that there shall be conferences when there are subjects for discussion and questions for decision, *and not otherwise.* I also think that the printing press, in the right hands, can reach more social workers than the conference, and often reach them better (the superintendent to direct his staff to the important reports and books); remembering, however that an occasional conference has an inspiration which the library lacks.

The subjects for the Philadelphia Conference this year are:

1. What is the trend or goal of social work?
2. How shall we best reach the goal?

If there is doubt where we are going, and how to get there, we should, of course, confer about it and try to decide at once. But what we call social work is so diverse, that it will be hard indeed to name any one goal, except in some such phrase as the betterment of the race.

I believe most heartily that we should confer on how to bring the social worker and the church together. The social worker often thinks the churchman narrow, impractical and unconcerned with social problems. The churchman thinks the social worker irreligious. Yet religion is the inspiration of the Good Samaritan, and there should be a broad, straight path from the pew to the Jericho Road. By all means let us confer on how to open this pathway and fill it with eage workers.

W. I. COOPER

Two Ways to Quality

THE questions involving quality of conferences are fa more important than the one of quantity. Of the thou sands of social workers, public officials and socially-minde laymen who each year attend conferences, few go merely fo the sake of attending. They go to obtain information, fres inspiration, a new perspective, and the companionship of other of like aims. By no means are all the values of a con ference in the formal session

In our effort to improve th quality of conferences there ar at least two lines of study tha would prove valuable. For wan of a better term we may call ther technique.

A. *The technique of prograr building.* This would involve a a basis an analysis of the kinds o people who attend. What pro portion have a background of pro fessional training? How man are doing the social work of thei communities with previous train ing? How many are board mem bers, public officials and the lik engaged not so much in the par ticular phases of social work bu in general policies?

What varieties of social wor are represented? To what type of communities will the worker have to adapt the methods an ideas they carry home? It is pos sible to develop a closer correlatio between the subject matter of conference program and the ca pacities and needs of the group attending? Such an analysis wil be helpful in selecting speakers and determining how subject shall be presented to the particular groups.

B. *The technique of discussion.* How often the printe program announces "3:30 P. M. General discussion." Usuall the chairman works desperately to start any argument at all or calls on one of the faithful to "make a few remarks." Som experiments have already been made in organized and stimu lated discussion but much can still be done in getting divergen opinions before the group and producing real group thinking The discussion periods might become the most valuable par of a program. They should have as careful planning as th selection of topics and speakers.

The benefit which a worker receives from a conference de pends upon his ability to select from the multitude of sub jects, a few for his special attention. Three or four clear cut ideas are worth more than a hundred hazy ones jumble together in a sort of mental hash.

HOWARD R. KNIGHT

For a Central Theme

WHO shall say which are the important and worthwhil conferences that should be retained, and which are th duplicating and less valuable ones that should be eliminated I wish joy to the surveyers who attempt thus to curb the urg which prompts people to meet and talk!

An evaluation rather than an enumeration of meetings i the thing to be desired. Perhaps (*Continued on page* 711

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Over My Desk

A Monthly Talk with Executives

By Elwood Street

Director, Community Council of St. Louis

An Automatic Memory System

Bruno—you know F. J. Bruno, who used to be general ecretary of the Family Welfare Association in Minneapolis nd who now is developing the new training course for social ork at Washington University—said the other afternoon dur- ig an official call, as he watched me make a note of an engage- ient and drop it into the tickler file in my desk drawer, "That ckler system of yours gave me the most useful idea for per- onal system I have got since I came to St. Louis. I have ried it out and it works like a charm. It is a sort of auto- iatic memory."

The tickler file is simply an open, wooden, file box for 3x5 ards, such as is sold at almost any stationery store. It is quipped with guides for the months of the year and with two ets of tabbed guides for the days of the month numbered con- ecutively from one to thirty-one. In addition it has tabbed uides on which may be written various subjects in which I iay wish to keep reminders.

This file box is kept in the front of my upper right hand esk drawer so that its tabs face me as I turn in my desk hair toward it.

I always carry in my coat pocket a leather book which con- ains pads of 3x5 inch slips perforated for easy tearing out. n the middle desk drawer also is a pile of 3x5 inch slips of aper. Whenever I make an engagement or get an idea which ould be carried out I make a note of it; if I am away from ie office in the tickler book; or if in the office on one of the ips from the desk drawer. Whenever I return to the office take the slips out of the leather book, or if I am in the office, ake them immediately from the desk drawer; and file them the tickler file according to the day on which the engage- ent is to be met or the operation performed, or if merely equired for future reference, under the subject indexed in ie rear of the file box. Thus each day for two months has ehind its numbered tabs memoranda of the things to be done n that day.

Each morning I take out from the numbered guide for that ay, the accumulated ticklers, arrange them in the order in hich they are to be performed, and make a list of them on ie daily schedule sheet which is always before me on the desk, signing so far as possible a definite time for each operation id for each engagement.

The next morning I take out the memoranda of the previous ay, drop in the waste basket those which have been carried it, move the numbered tab for the previous day around to e end of the tabs already in place for the second month ead, combine the memoranda of activities not carried out n the previous day with the memoranda of those which are ready scheduled for the current day and proceed to make up e current day's schedule.

The schedule not only is useful for checking off activities they are performed, but also for writing notes on the day's tivities, which form the basis of a daily record or diary hich I dictate. This diary is kept in a loose leaf book and rves both as a basis of reports to my Board of Directors and so as a means of reference if any question comes up regard- g promises I have made or conversations I have held.

The tabs in the rear of the tickler box for special ideas are t an essential part of the plan. My own file includes "books" be read, "campaign ideas" which I collect during the year, "publicity" ideas, "general" ideas to be applied to the manage- ment of the organization, and "people to see" in which I have a card list of the people with whom I would like to get in personal touch when the opportunity offers.

Such a tickler system as this, if continuously used, will pro- vide an infallible memory, will supply a basis for the orderly planning of one's daily activities, and will give the means for the permanent retention of all ideas which come to its user. This latter function of idea-retention can be worked out, of course in coordination with a central filing system in which clippings and memoranda which are too bulky to go in a 3x5 card file, should be kept.

I claim no originality for this plan. It is described in much more detail in the book How To Be Personally Efficient in Business published by the A. W. Shaw Company, which I think is the most useful single book I have ever read as an aid to development of systematic work. It preaches the gospel of the clean desk: which might be the subject of another sermon.

Office Light

W. H. Leffingwell, who some people think is the country's leading authority on office management, was in St. Louis the other day and among other activities looked over our office. He said that our lighting system was inadequate and that the ideal system for a clerical office was a complete diffused light- ing giving intensity of ten candle power per square foot. The Provident Association, the owner of the Social Service Build- ing, has already promised to revise the lighting equipment. If you are interested in either lighting of offices or any other phase of office management, I recommend most heartily Mr. Leffingwell's book, Office Management: Principles and Prac- tice, published by A. W. Shaw and Company ($5.00 *postpaid of The Survey*).

A Short Cut on Budget Forms

A very economical scheme picked up from the San Francisco Community Chest last summer was that of having the budget forms which are used by the Community Chest printed in ditto ink instead of ordinary printer's ink. When the budgets are returned to the Community Chest office by the member organizations they are copied on a typewriter with a ditto rib- bon so that both the budget form and the figures on it may then be duplicated directly on the ditto machine. This plan provides plenty of copies for the members of the Budget Com- mittee and for the representatives of the organizations who appear before the Budget Committee. This plan could be suc- cessfully used by almost any organization which needs large numbers of copies of reports which are prepared on printed forms.

Learning to Make Speeches

We are having a bully time with the speech clinic which meets every Tuesday night following supper in the Y. W. C. A. cafeteria.

About forty social workers, board members and laymen in- terested in being able to speak more effectively about the Com- munity Fund or various ones of its member organizations, have been divided up into three teams, each with a captain. Every Tuesday night each of the teams presents a speaker for ten minutes; the class votes as to the grade each speaker is en- titled to; the leader of the class also grades each speaker; the average of the returns is thus taken. A record is kept of the grades of each team's speakers. The winning team at the end of the year will be banqueted by the losing teams.

The leader, H. T. Bussmann, has contributed his services because he felt that he ought to do something to advance the cause of social work in St. Louis in addition to contributing financially and running a successful electric fuse manufactur- ing business. He criticizes each speaker and also lectures on the principles of effective speaking. (*Continued on page* 711)

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AMERICAN BIRTH CONTROL LEAGUE—President, Margaret Sanger, 104 Fifth Avenue, New York City. Objects: To educate American public in the various aspects of the dangers of uncontrolled procreation; to establish centers where married persons may receive contraceptive advice from duly licensed physicians. Life membership $1.00; Birth Control Review (monthly magazine) $2.00 per year.

AMERICAN COUNTRY LIFE ASSOCIATION—K. L. Butterfield, president; Henry Israel, executive secretary. Room 1849, Grand Central Terminal Bldg., New York City. Emphasizes the human aspect of country life. Annual membership $5.00 includes "Rural America" (monthly bulletin) and Annual Conference Proceedings.

AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION—Lita Bane, executive secretary, 617 Mills Bldg., Washington, D. C. Organized for betterment of conditions in home, school, institution and community. Publishes monthly Journal of Home Economics: office of editor, 617 Mills Bldg., Washington, D. C.; of business manager, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.

AMERICAN PEACE SOCIETY—Founded 1828, labors for an international peace of justice. Its official organ is the Advocate of Peace, $2.00 a year. Arthur Deerin Call, secretary and editor, 612-614 Colorado Building, Washington, D. C.

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE CONTROL OF CANCER—Dr. George A. Soper, managing director, 25 West 43rd Street, New York. To collect, collate and disseminate information concerning the symptoms, diagnosis, treatment and prevention. Publications free on request. Annual membership dues, $5.00.

AMERICAN SOCIAL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave., New York. To promote a better understanding of the social hygiene movement; to advance sound sex education; to combat prostitution and sex delinquency; to aid public authorities in the campaign against the venereal diseases; to advise in organization of state and local social-hygiene programs. Annual membership dues $2.00 including monthly journal.

CHILD WELFARE COMMITTEE OF AMERICA, Inc.—730 Fifth Avenue, New York. Telephone: Circle 9623. To secure Mothers Allowance laws in states now having no such provision; to promote desirable amendments to existing Mothers Allowance laws, to harmonize them with the maximum necessary protection of dependent children; to secure proper laws affecting adoption, boarding out and placing out of dependent children; so far as possible to secure home life for normal children in preference to sending them to institutions; to aid in the enforcement of Mothers Pension and kindred laws. States Council of Child Welfare Committee of America comprises representatives of practically every state. Committee publishes digest of laws and educational material on Mothers Pension and kindred topics. Invites requests from responsible public and private organizations for aid in Mothers Pension problems. Sophie Irene Loeb, President; Governor Alfred E. Smith, Honorary Chairman; Margaret Woodrow Wilson, First Vice-President; Edward F. Brown, Executive Secretary.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA—C. C. Carstens, director, 130 E. 22d Street, New York City. A league of children's agencies and institutions to secure improved standards and methods in their various fields of work. It also cooperates with other children's agencies, cities, states, churches, fraternal orders and other civic groups to work out worth-while results in phases of child welfare in which they are interested.

COUNCIL OF WOMEN FOR HOME MISSIONS—156 Fifth Avenue, New York. Composed of 20 Protestant national women's mission boards. Florence E. Quinlan, Executive Secretary.
- Work among Farm and Cannery Migrants, Summer service for college students, Laura H. Parker, Executive Supervisor.
- Bureau of Reference for Migrating People, follow-up of New Americans, Raymond E. Cole, Executive.

FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA—onstituted by 28 Protestant communions. Rev. C. S. Macfarland and Rev. S. M. Cavert, Gen. Secs.; 105 E. 22d St., N. Y. C.
- Dept. of Research and Education. Rev. F. E. Johnson, Sec'y.
- Commissions: Church and Social Service, Rev. W.M.Tippy, Sec'y.
- International Justice and Goodwill: Rev. S. L. Gulick, Sec'y;
- Church and Race Relations: Dr. G. E. Haynes, Sec'y.

GIRLS FRIENDLY SOCIETY IN AMERICA—15 East 40th Street, New York. Girls and women working together to uphold Christian standards of daily living in the home, in the business world, and in the community. Numbers nearly 60,000, with branches in 44 states.

HAMPTON INSTITUTE—Trains Negro and Indian youth for community service. Advanced courses: agriculture, builders, business, home-economics, normal. Publishes "Southern Workman" and free material on Negro problems. J. E. Gregg, principal.

JOINT COMMITTEE ON METHODS OF PREVENTING DELINQUENCY—Graham Romeyn Taylor, executive director, 50 East 42d Street, New York. To promote the adoption of soun methods in the field, with particular reference to psychiatri clinics, visiting teacher work, and training for these and simila services; to conduct related studies, education and publicatior and to interpret the work of the Commonwealth Fund Program fc the Prevention of Delinquency.

NATIONAL BOARD OF THE YOUNG WOMENS CHRISTIAI ASSOCIATIONS—Mrs. Robert E. Speer, president; Miss Mab Cratty, general secretary, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York Cit This organization maintains a staff of executive and travelin secretaries to cover work in the United States in 1,034 local Y. W C. A.'s on behalf of the industrial, business, student, foreign born Indian, Colored and younger girls. It has 159 American secretarie at work in 49 centers in the Orient, Latin America and Europ

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE—Owen R. Lovejo sec'y: 215 Fourth Avenue, New York. Industrial, agricultura investigations. Works for improved laws and administration children's codes. Studies health, schools, recreation, dependency delinquency, etc. Annual membership, $2, $5, $10, $25 and $100 includes monthly bulletin, "The American Child."

NATIONAL CHILD WELFARE ASSOCIATION, INC. (est. 1912 incorp. 1914), 70 Fifth Ave., N. Y. C. (tel. Chelsea 8774). Pro motes as its chief object the building of character in the childre of America through the harmonious development of their bodies minds, and spirits. Its method is, in co-operation with othe organizations, to originate and disseminate educational materia in the form of posters, books, bulletins, charts, slides, and insignia Through its "Knighthood of Youth" it provides homes, school and church schools with a method of character training throug actual practice. Officers: Dr. John H. Finley, Pres.; Amos I. Prescott, Treas.; Charles F. Powlison, Gen. Sec'y.

THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR MENTAL HYGIENE, INC.—Dr. William H. Welch, honorary president; Dr. Charles P. Emer son, president; Dr. Frankwood E. Williams, medical director; Dr Clarence J. D'Alton, executive assistant; Clifford W. Beers, secre tary; 370 Seventh Avenue, New York, New York City. Pamphlet on mental hygiene, mental and nervous disorders, feebleminded ness, epilepsy, inebrity, delinquency, and other mental prob lems in human behavior, education, industry, psychiatric socia service, etc. "Mental Hygiene," quarterly, $3.00 a year; "Menta Hygiene Bulletin," monthly, $.50 a year.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK—Miss Gertrud Vaile, president, Denver, Colo.; W. H. Parker, secretary, 25 Eas Ninth Street, Cincinnati, Ohio. The Conference is an organizatio to discuss the principles of humanitarian effort and to increase th efficiency of social service agencies. Each year it holds an annua meeting, publishes in permanent form the Proceedings of the meet ing, and issues a quarterly Bulletin. The fifty-third annual meet ing of the Conference will be held in Cleveland, Ohio, Spring, 1926 Proceedings are sent free of charge to all members upon paymen of a membership fee of five dollars.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS—Lewis H. Carris, managing director; Mrs. Winifred Hatha way, secretary; 270 Seventh Ave., New York. Objects: To furnis information, exhibits, lantern slides, lectures, personal service fo local organizations and legislation, publish literature of movemen —samples free, quantities at cost. Includes New York State Com mittee.

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA—34 Madison Avenue, New York City (Telephone, Vanderbilt 1200) Composed of 344 business and professional men, representing 1,54 Associations in 48 states, Hawaii, and the Canal Zone, and 38 Associations in 32 Foreign Lands. Officers: F. W. Ramsey, Cleve land, O., President; Adrian Lyon, Chairman of the General Board John R. Mott, New York, General Secretary.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF JEWISH WOMEN—2109 Broadway New York. Miss Rose Brenner, pres.; Mrs. Estelle M. Sternberger ex. sec'y. Promotes civic cooperation, education, religion an social welfare in the United States, Canada, Cuba, Europe.
- Department of Immigrant Aid—799 Broadway. Miss Florin Lasker, chairman. For the protection and education of im migrant women and girls.
- Department of Farm and Rural Work—Mrs. Leo H. Herz, chair man, 5 Columbus Circle, New York City.

NATIONAL TUBERCULOSIS ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave New York. Dr. Theobald Smith, president; Dr. Linsly R. Wil liams, managing director. Pamphlets on methods and progra for the prevention of tuberculosis. Publications sold and distri buted through state associations in every state. Journal of th Outdoor Life, popular monthly magazine, $2.00 a year; America Review of Tuberculosis, medical journal, $8.00 a year; an Monthly Bulletin, house organ, free.

NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE—for social service among Negroe L. Hollingsworth Wood, pres.; Eugene Kinckle Jones, exec. sec'y 127 E. 23rd St., New York. Establishes committees of white an colored people to work out community problems. Trains Negr social workers. Publishes "Opportunity"—a "journal of Negro life.

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THE SURVEY'S DIRECTORY

NATIONAL WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE—Mrs. Raymond Robins, honorary president; Mrs. Maud Swartz, president; 311 South Ashland Blvd., Chicago, Ill. Stands for self-government in the work shop through organization and also for the enactment of industrial legislation. Information given.

PLAYGROUND AND RECREATION ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA—315 FGourth Avenue, New York City. Joseph Lee, president; H. S. Braucher, secretary. Special attention given to organization of year-round municipal recreation systems. Information available on playground and community center activities and administration.

PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION LEAGUE—To secure representation for all. C. G. Hoag, sec'y, 1417 Locust St., Philadelphia. Membership, $2.00, entitles to quarterly P. R. Review.

RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION—For the Improvement of Living Conditions—John M. Glenn, dir.; 130 E. 22d St., New York, Departments: Charity Organization, Delinquency and Penology, Industrial Studies, Library, Recreation, Remedial Loans, Social Legislation, Statistics, Surveys and Exhibits. The publications of the Russell Sage Foundation offer to the public in practical and inexpensive form some of the most important results of its work. Catalogue sent upon request.

TUSKEGEE INSTITUTE—An institution for the training of Negro Youth an experiment in race adjustment in the Black Belt of the South; furnishes information on all phases of the race problem and of the Tuskegee idea and methods; Robert R. Moton, prin.; Warren Logan, treas.; A. L. Holsey, acting sec'y, Tuskegee, Ala.

WORKERS' EDUCATION BUREAU OF AMERICA—Spencer Miller, Jr., sec'y; 476 West 24th St. A clearing-house for Workers' Education.

Over My Desk

(*Continued from page* 709)

he members of the class declare that it is the most effective it of public speech training they ever have had.

We would commend this plan for a speech clinic, provided a suitable leader could be secured, to social workers' associations or other groups interested in the interpretation of social work. We would also recommend to individuals the book which is the basis of Mr. Bussmann's instruction: Phillips' Effective Speaking (*Newton Publishing Company*, $1.50. *Postpaid of The Survey*).

The Conference Complex

(*Continued from page* 711)

f we concentrated on improving the quality of our conferences he problem of the quantity would solve itself. Let those f us who are responsible for plans and programs see to t that our topics are timely and vital and not a rehash of ld stuff, that our discussions are spirited and to the point and hat our speakers are informed and forward-looking people ho have real contributions to make.

Let us strive for a definite objective in planning our meetings, et us set ourselves some definite goal of accomplishment. We re making a beginning in that direction in California by the doption of a central theme for discussion which shall be the eynote of the conference, as for example, "A ten year attack on our major social problems" which is the theme around which he program for our 1926 meeting is being built.

That state conferences of social work throughout the country re alive to many of the implications of Mrs. Guild's questionngs is evidenced by the informal organization of secretaries of state conferences started two years ago at Toronto, at the nstance of Howard R. Knight of Ohio. A discussion of conerence methods at the first two meetings of the group appears o be leading in the direction of a self-study which will attempt o evaluate the work of state conferences, to see whether they re really justifying the time and money spent on them.

Who can measure such imponderable things as refreshment f spirit, renewed faith in the worthwhileness of one's job, the readth of view that must result from exposure to many and diverse opinions, the good fellowship engendered by the informal contacts of the annual meeting, and the stimulation, encouragement and inspiration which come to every delegate.

ANITA ELDRIDGE.

Ask a Question

What problem in social work technique would you like to have threshed out here? Each month a question will be published in this column and will be answered by an authority.

Question: How can a city recreation department or a Community Service organization cooperate with a local college in conducting recreation programs which include volunteer workers from the college?

Answered by Abbie Condit, Playground and Recreation Association of America.

From the reports received by the Association there is evidence that increasingly local municipal recreation departments, community service groups and other public and private bodies conducting recreation are cooperating with colleges, normal schools and special training schools in an exchange of service.

In many instances students at educational institutes are required to do a certain amount of practice work at the municipal play centers. The work which is being done by the boy guidance course at Notre Dame University is an outstanding example. Here the students are assigned not only to the playgrounds and community centers of South Bend but also to those of more distant cities for practical work. Another interesting example is to be found at Highland Park, Michigan, where Miss Nina Lamkin, Director of Women's and Girls' Activities of the Recreation Commission, cooperated with the Junior College course in recreation carrying three hours of college credit. There were twenty-five students in Miss Lamkin's classes and they give, in addition to their three hours in class work, two hours of practice work, thus furnishing the commission fifty hours of leadership a week.

The students at the physical education department of Peabody College are giving considerable help in the recreation work conducted by the Director of Park Activities, Board of Park Commissioners, Nashville, Tennessee. At the time of National Play Week last year the students served as leaders of games and directors of athletic events and during the year they cooperated in various capacities. The Director of Park Activities is closely in touch with the work of the Department of Physical Education, giving talks before the students and showing films of recreation activities.

The short term recreation institutes for the training of both volunteer and paid workers which are being held by recreation departments and community service groups are developing helpful cooperation with educational institutions. As an example, the Bureau of Recreation of Knoxville, Tennessee, in cooperation with the Community Service Council, during the early winter conducted a recreation training school with a faculty from the university and from local organizations. Arrangements were made with the Department of Sociology of the university whereby students in that department attending the institute were given credit. Assignments for service were made from the office of the Bureau of Recreation and the record of work and assignments was filed each month with the head of the Sociology Department.

New Psychiatric Service

A *visiting* psychiatrist is now available to certain social agencies of Boston, through the cooperation of the Boston Federation for Placement Work and the Massachusetts Society for Mental Hygiene. This plan will in no way duplicate the psychiatric facilities which Boston possesses, but will tend to extend and amplify their usefulness to social agencies. Dr. Elizabeth A. Sullivan, formerly with the United Jewish Charities of New York, has been appointed visiting psychiatrist.

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Publicity Hints

What is News?

HOW to get a news item together and what to expect of the editor to whom it is sent was told by Kent Perkins, city editor of the Boston Herald, recently at one of the Boston social workers' publicity luncheons.

"Propaganda is not necessarily news," the bulletin of the Boston Council of Social Agencies quotes Mr. Perkins as saying, "and a long, dreary account of good works, though it possesses news value, is not usable. A story filled with names and titles and couched in words which never take fire, is inert clay which the editor cannot mold for press uses. Most of the amateurish copy now reaching the editor's desk from social agencies is of this non-burning, non-fusing quality even though in the subject matter of social work is to be found the most dramatic news of the day, dealing as it does with human contacts."

Rotogravure Pictures

Lawrence Thornton, speaking to the Publicity Conference of the Methodist Board of Education about rotogravure pictures, said that:

1. In the composition of a group, an even number of figures should be avoided.
2. About 75 per cent of the pictures used for news photos, can be cropped.
3. Overlapping of pictures in a group is a desirable way to save space in making up a page.
4. Line drawings can be used effectively to relieve photographs.
5. Avoid placing pictures diagonally.

The elements of chief value in rotogravure pictures are pretty girls, babies and pets, action, scenic value, distinguished persons (preferably in action) and timely news or recent developments.

—From the News Bulletin of the Committee on Publicity Methods in Social Work.

Fashions for Flappers

The Pennsylvania Tuberculosis Conference was blessed with a real publicity feature—the Fashion Show which is being given before the girls in the schools of Philadelphia and vicinity by the Philadelphia Inter-State Dairy Council, 1211 Arch Street, Philadelphia. Instead of gawky, self-conscious boys and girls disguised as turnips, apples and milk (if possible), there was a fashion show that might have come fresh from Wanamaker's store across the street. Madame Santé, a designer of "beautiful things that women love to wear," might have been a real Parisian designer—chic, petite, with a charming French accent—instead of a member of the Dairy Council staff.

"We are beginning to realize," began Madame Santé, "what an important part health plays in this fashion show we call Life. On the crowded Avenue you meet someone who particularly catches your eye. 'Ah! that lady is beautifully dressed,' you will say—but is it the dress alone that strikes your fancy? No. On second thought you will find that this lady is clothed in something more than style—she wears a robe of health—a clear skin, bright eyes, grace, poise and a subtle effluence of happiness. And these are the things I want all of you to incorporate into your gowns. Look to Healthland for your inspiration—then, if you wish, turn to Paris for the necessary frills and ruffles."

Then there strolled across the stage, one by one, with just the proper rhythm, a half dozen pretty girls (recruited from the high schools) each displaying a new dress model—morning toggery, sport frock, wedding gown, traveling dress, dinner gown, evening gown.

In her description of each model, Madame Santé subtly drove home the idea that good health habits were necessary if the gown was to have its appropriate setting.

Here is real publicity. Addressed to high school girls, it speaks in the language of its audience.

His Question

The sermons of a certain old Scotch preacher were always short. "For," said he, "few souls are saved after the first twenty minutes."

On the other hand a political orator once extolled a presidential candidate for an hour and a half. At the close of his address he requested that questions be asked. Only one of the audience could think of a question. "Please," he inquired, "what is the time?"

Better Letters

Here are the ten commandments for better letters, prescribed by B. C. Roloff, Executive Secretary of the Illinois Social Hygiene League, and published in "Postage":

1. Strive for simplicity.
2. Use the short sentence.
3. Observe variety in sentence length.
4. There is a quality of calmness in a long sentence constructed with regard to rhythm.
5. You should mix long and short paragraphs.
6. Make your writing stick together.
7. Put some dominant thought into the first line of your letter.
8. Cling to naturalness.
9. The intrinsic quality of writing is feeling.
10. Be not content to send forth second-hand thoughts.

"Postage," by the way, is a little magazine for those who sell by mail, whether they sell merchandise or ideas. It is worth much more than the $2 a year that it costs. You can subscribe to it through The Survey.

Have You These Books?

In the books named below, selected by Mary Swain Routzahn, the social worker will find some of the principles and technique which he needs to use in publicity, discussed in terms of journalism, advertising or public affairs. He can make his own application of the material to social work. These books may be ordered through The Survey, postpaid.

NEWSPAPER WRITING AND EDITING, *by Willard G. Bleyer Houghton, Mifflin Co.* 365 *pp. Price* $2.25 *postpaid of The Survey.*
Contains chapters discussing news and news value, structure and style in news stories, special kinds of news and feature stories. Many examples of news and feature articles.

EFFECTIVE TYPE-USE FOR ADVERTISING, *by Benjamin Sherbow* 139 *pp. Price* $2.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*
Addressed to laymen. In simple language discusses how to use printing to get attention and deliver a message. Chapter headings are Good Looks; Liveliness; Orderly Arrangement; Easy to Read. Illustrated.

A B C OF EXHIBIT PLANNING, *by E. G. and M. S. Routzahn. Russell Sage Foundation.* 216 *pp. Price* $2.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*
Apart from any help it may give in planning exhibits, the first chapter suggests a method of approach to any publicity project. The book also contains some reference material in convenient form on how to organize a campaign.

HANDBOOK OF PUBLIC SPEAKING, *by John Dolman, Jr. Harcourt, Brace & Co.,* 165 *pp. Price* $1.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*
A concise statement of the principles, together with a few hints as to method.

LIBRARY AND THE COMMUNITY, *by Joseph L. Wheeler. American Library Association.* 417 *pp. Price* $3.50 *postpaid of The Survey.*
While this book is addressed to the librarian it contains many practical helps for the social worker.

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GOSSIP: of People and Things

Come to Cleveland

THE setting for the National Conference of Social Work this year is almost ideal. The auditorium, which is part of Cleveland's new civic center on the lake front, contains a hall large enough to accommodate the general sessions, even with the greatly increased attendance which this year's program will bring. Smaller rooms in the same building will care for many of the division meetings, while there will be ample space in the foyer for the registration and information units, The Survey's book stall and the headquarters of kindred groups.

Alabama and Ohio

The Alabama Conference of Social Work, March 21-23, will be the guests of Tuskegee Institute. A new plan will be tried this year. The conference will meet one day at Auburn, headquarters of the Farm Bureau and the State Polytechnic Institute, one day looking over the welfare work of an outstanding group of cotton mills and one day at Tuskegee. The theme of the conference will be Country Life and Community Organization.

* * * *

In conformity with its plan of holding regional conferences, the Ohio Welfare Conference held a successful conference at Zanesville, February 9-10.

Dwight Breed

The public health movement in the United States has lost one of its outstanding workers. Dwight Breed, executive secretary of the Texas Public Health Association, died of heart disease in Fort Worth on January 18. Breed was one of those vigorous, clean-cut young men who are giving themselves without reserve to the fight against disease.

Robert A. Woods

The memory of Robert Archey Woods was honored by a special service in Faneuil Hall, Boston, on February 14. Addresses were delivered by Rev. Michael J. Scanlan, Joseph Lee and John L. Elliott.

James Forbes Returns

James Forbes, whose work as head of the Mendicancy Squad of the New York Charity Organization Society was one of the most unique demonstrations of social policing coupled with constructive case work, has been appointed secretary of the Westchester County (New York) S.P.C.C., with headquarters at Yonkers. For several years past, Mr. Forbes has been farming it in Virginia.

Health Play Contest

C.-E. A. Winslow, professor of Public Health, Yale University; J. Mace Andress, Boston University, and Hughes Mearns, New York University, have been selected as the judges for the Health Play Contest for high schools which is being conducted by the National Tuberculosis Association and its affiliated organizations. The plays are to be one act only and must deal with a realistic event which can be linked up with a public health message, not necessarily concerning tuberculosis. The plays are to be judged for their dramatic value and their power to carry the underlying educational message to the public. The contest is open to public, private and parochial high schools of junior and senior grade.

A Dinner for Mr. Devine

In advance of the Social Service Institute which Edward T. Devine (contributing editor of The Survey) held early this month at the Red Cross Building in Washington, a testimonial dinner was given at the Cosmos Club by a committee of Washingtonians headed by John Barton Payne, chairman of the American Red Cross, and including such leaders as Bishop Freeman, Father Kirby, Senator Copeland, Senator Capper, Justice Siddons, Commissioner Kuno H. Rudolph, Walter S. Ufford and George Wilson. Mr. Devine has been lecturing from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from Canada to Mexico, and across the borders of both, during the last five years; and his most recent national work, which brought him to Washington, was as a member of the United States Coal Commission of 1922-23. But back of that, range such outstanding executive achievements as the organization of Disaster Relief in San Francisco at the time of the earthquake and the fire, and as chief of the very important Bureau of Refugees under the Red Cross Commission to France during the last year of the war and throughout the heaviest period of all, the German drive of the summer of 1918.

Better Times Awards

Homer Folks, secretary of the State Charities Aid Association, the Rev. Robert F. Keegan, secretary of the Catholic Charities for the archidocese of New York, and Lillian D. Wald, head of the Henry Street Settlement, were awarded medals for outstanding social service to New York during the last five years, at the annual Better Times dinner last month. As a surprise, a loving cup was presented by the Committee of Award to George Hecht, editor of Better Times, for his service in bringing the Welfare Council into being, and William Hodson, the director of the new body, made the signal address of the evening on the developments of the past year, the opportunity ahead.

Appointments and Elections

JANE ALLEN as director of the National Organization for Public Health Nursing, effective June 1, 1926.

SARA A. BROWN to the staff of the American Association for Organizing Family Social Work as associate field director for the Trans-Mississippi district.

MARY CLARK, of the Colorado Springs Day Nursery, as field captain of the St. Louis Girl Scouts.

DR. HARRIET STEVENS CORY as education director of the Missouri Social Hygiene Association.

EDNA P. COWGILL, formerly district supervisor, Georgia Children's Home Society, Atlanta, Ga., as superintendent of the Florence Crittenton Industrial Home, Charlotte, N. C.

MATHILDA FINKELSTEIN, as director of the Immigrant Aid Department of the San Francisco Council of Jewish Women.

FRANCES N. HARRISON as assistant director of the Training School for Jewish Social Work, New York.

PETER KASIUS, for several years assistant director of educational work in the United States Public Health Service, as field secretary of the American Association for Medical Progress, Inc.

ROLLA S. KNAPP, of Easton, Pa., re-elected president of the Pennsylvania Tuberculosis Society.

DR. A. J. LANZA, director of the National Health Council, to the medical staff of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, specializing in industrial medicine.

PRESIDENT CLARENCE C. LITTLE, of the University of Michigan, as chairman of the Lay Advisory Board of the American Association for Medical Progress, Inc., a national lay organization for popular education on the scientific foundations of modern medical practice and public health work.

EMMA O. LUNDBERG, formerly on the staff of the United States Children's Bureau, as director of the Department of Institutional Care of the Child Welfare League of America, succeeding Mary Irene Atkinson, resigned.

PAUL McFARLAND as publicity director of the Rochester Community Chest, succeeding Fred T. Harris, deceased.

DR. B. FRANKLIN ROYER, formerly chief medical inspector for the Pennsylvania State Department of Health, as medical director of the National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness.

DR. I. M. RUBINOW as president of the Pennsylvania Conference on Social Welfare.

ERNEST COLE, of the Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania, as secretary and treasurer, Pennsylvania Conference Social Welfare.

HILDA SIMON of Rochester, New York, to the staff of the St. Louis Hospital Social Service.

DR. BENJAMIN S. STEPHENSON as chief of the Bureau of Health Education of the Ohio State Department of Health, succeeding Dr. H. E. Kleinschmidt, promoted to chief of the Division of Child Hygiene.

WALTER D. THURBER as president of the New England Tuberculosis Conference. Frank Kiernan as secretary and treasurer.

Resignations

ALETA BROWNLEE as executive secretary of the Social Workers Association of Oregon, to join the staff of the San Francisco office of the American Red Cross.

DR. THOMAS H. HAINES as director of the Division on Mental Deficiency of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene. Dr. Haines plans to spend several months in study abroad and to enter private practice on his return.

OWEN R. LOVEJOY as general secretary of the National Child Labor Committee. (See Common Welfare in this issue.)

A. W. McMILLEN as member of the staff of the San Francisco office of the American Red Cross, to travel in Europe for an indefinite period.

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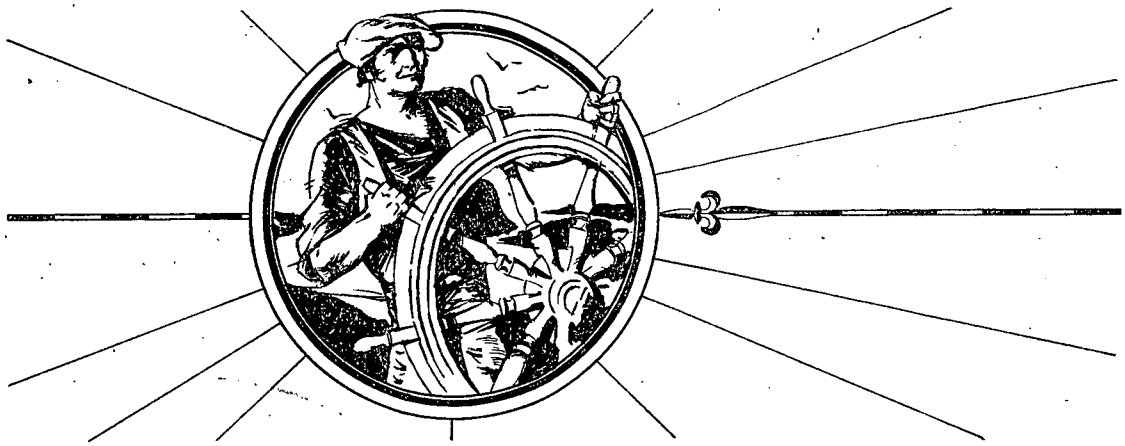

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